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ART. I. *Lives of British Statesmen.* By John Macdiarmid, Esq. Author of an Inquiry into the System of National Defence in Great Britain, and of an Inquiry into the Principles of Subordination. 4to. pp. 606. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

THE life of a statesman belongs to the most eminent class of biographical composition. It is the record of the actions of an individual, indeed, but of an individual who was occupied with the destiny of nations; and while in some parts it attracts and amuses by the familiar incidents of private life, it aspires in others to the dignity of history. The first duty of an author who treats this subject, and the grand means of success, consist in an indefatigable search into original documents. By this kind of perseverance, he will seldom fail to discover many interesting materials which had either escaped preceding writers, or which, from their reference to private life. the historian could not properly incorporate into his more dignified narrative; and though the labour required for these investigations is considerable, yet, if judiciously directed, it will not fail to be amply repaid by its attractive results. Our curiosity is often awakened by disputed points in the history of political characters; and even where no dispute exists, the known events in the life of a great man prepare in our mind an interest in farther discoveries.

With regard to the present work, its plan will be best understood by a reference to the author's exposition of it, which we extract from his preface:

'Of the men who have guided the councils of our country, and attained distinguished political eminence, we are desirous to learn many particulars, which would be misplaced in the general annals of a nation. The skilful historian may seize the prominent features of their character, and describe the most important of their public transactions: but numerous anecdotes, both of their public and private life, however interesting, he must leave unrecorded, while a whole people demand his attention. We are solicitous to know the steps by which

they ascended to power, the arts by which they retained their station, the incidents by which they terminated their exalted career. We are pleased to observe them in the more private intercourse of life; to follow them into their families and closets: and to discover how the men, who govern empires, conduct themselves amidst the cares and duties which are common to the humble and the exalted.

'Nor is our curiosity alone interested by such information. To those who prepare to tread the same paths, and to gratify their ambition in the discharge of public functions, the progress and transactions of their illustrious predecessors must be the volume, in which they are to read the most important lessons. But it is not the statesman by profession, who is alone called upon to observe the results of political experience. In this country, where public opinion is possessed of so much sway, the voice even of private individuals may have some influence on the national counsels.

'The moral lessons afforded by the career of statesmen demand not less attention. Every one is interested to learn, from such eminent examples, that the lustre of the highest station is derived from the same virtues which embellish private life; and that happiness is most attainable, as well as most secure, when our condition excites not the jealous passions of mankind.

'Such are the views which have guided the author in delineating the Lives of British Statesmen. He has been anxious to derive his information from the most authentic sources; and to exhibit virtues and defects equally without exaggeration or diminution. He has avoided many opportunities of discussion, where the result did not seem of importance to his immediate objects; but he has occasionally attempted, in the illustration of his subject, to throw light upon some obscure or disputed parts of history He has endeavoured to select the lives contained in this volume, from periods sufficiently distinct to prevent a repetition of the same political transactions; yet sufficiently connected, to form a chain of history without considerable interruptions.'

The lives contained in this volume are those of Sir Thomas More, Cecil Lord Burleigh, Wentworth Earl of Strafford, and Hyde Earl of Clarendon. Of these, Sir Thomas More deserves the first rank, as a man of letters, and as the father and instructor of a family. Burleigh excites our admiration as a judicious and profound minister; and Clarendon as a faithful and conscientious adherent to an ungracious master. The moral qualities of Wentworth are at best doubtful: his unprincipled ambition at least must be admitted; and it is chiefly by his untimely end that we are led to sympathize in the events of his life: though the surprizing energy, also, with which he prosecuted the accomplishment of his views, often withdraws the mind of the reader from the criminality of his intentions.

We are induced to bestow our principal attention, in this article, on the life of Wentworth, both because it occupies a great part of the volume under review, and because his conduct

has long been the subject of dispute and misrepresentation. At the head of the party-writers who have disfigured the annals of that important period, stands Mr. Hume; and it appears to us that the mis-statements of an author of such talents, and whose works have obtained so extensive a circulation, cannot be too studiously counteracted.

Wentworth became a member of Parliament in 1621, the period at which the differences between the king and that assembly began to wear a serious aspect. A seat in parliament for a county had been for some time an object of his ambition. In regard to boroughs, this privilege had now only begun to be appreciated; as we find several boroughs, which had hitherto refused to send members to the House of Commons, now resuming the exercise of this right. Mr. Macdiarmid here takes occasion to introduce (p. 260) an historical view of the progress of the English constitution, which places the subject in so different a light from the representations of Mr. Hume, that we much regret that our limits do not permit its insertion at length. Its substance is as follows.

Although the complete introduction of the feudal system by William the Conqueror gave the royal authority an ascendancy apparently uncontroulable, the Parliament, or assembly of the Barons, still retained many privileges calculated to render them an active portion of the government. No tax could be imposed without their approbation; nor could any peer be deprived of his property, his liberty, or his life, without their decision. The barons had wisely procured the signature of several of their sovereigns to written enumerations of their rights; and of the Grand Charter in particular, a signed copy was deposited in every diocese throughout the kingdom.

'When the representatives of the people, (says Mr. Macdiarmid,) in consequence of various circumstances in the progress of society, afterwards became a component part of the parliament, they shared in the powers and privileges previously attached to that body, obtaining some peculiarly to themselves, and enjoying others in common with the great barons. The last resort in judicial proceedings remained exclusively with the lords; the first motion for granting contributions was appropriated by the commons; while the discussion and sanction of all general laws became equally the important privilege of both.

'But these rights were not preserved and transmitted to posterity, without incessant precautions and repeated struggles. If the subjects were interested in preserving undiminished the power of the parliament, the king was naturally inclined to gratify his ambition by the extension of his authority. Advanced, by the institution of feudal tenures, from the leader of independent chiefs, to the sovereign of a great kingdom, he still found an uneasy restraint in the ancient pri-

vileges of his barons. To increase his revenue, to revenge his quarrels, to remove some obnoxious opponent, he was occasionally tempted to transgress the limits which long usage or express charters had prescribed, and to commit illegal invasions on the persons and property of his subjects.

'On these occasions, the barons appealed for redress to the same violent means by which the injuries had been inflicted. With arms in their hands, and an escort of military vassals in their train, they came to the national council, compelled the monarch to renounce such acts for the future, and obliged him to give them a written assurance of his good faith, either by the grant of a new charter, or an explicit confirmation of those already obtained. Such was the manner in which the Great Charter was wrested from the fears of King John. The monarch, indeed, felt little scruple in violating promises which had been extorted from his apprehensions; and no sooner were the barons dispersed, and their vassals disbanded, than he frequently renewed the same acts of oppression, which had excited their indignation. On such occasions, the barons had no other resource than to betake themselves again to arms; and to procure a new confirmation of rights, of which they found their courage the only effectual guardian. King John had no sooner ratified the Great Charter than he proceeded to violate its provisions, and destroy its promoters; and its next confirmation was purchased by a civil war, and even the introduction of a foreign power into the kingdom. Such was the apprehension infused into the barons by repeated infringements, that, in the course of a few reigns, they procured from the monarch thirty successive ratifications of the Great Charter.

'But the progress of society, while it supplanted the martial array of the barons, provided new checks to the encroachments of the sovereign. During the reigns which immediately *succeeded* the Norman *succession*, the independent patrimony of the crown, united to the aids imposed by the military tenures, was sufficient to support the peace establishment of the monarch; while the military services, by which all the lands in the kingdom were held, provided an ample resource for the exigencies of war. In this situation of things, the sovereign had no temptation, beyond the suggestion of unreasonable passions, to encroach on the rights of his subjects; nor they any means beyond their military force to secure themselves against his injustice.

'Only a few reigns, however, had elapsed, before the relative condition of the sovereign and the subject had undergone a material change. While the introduction of manufactures and commerce gradually presented new objects of desire, and led to an increased expenditure; the rapacity of the courtiers, and the improvident profusion of the monarchs, produced a rapid dilapidation of the royal demesnes. At the same time, the system of military tenures, then the only regular resource provided for warfare, was found to include, under a formidable appearance of stability and permanence, a weakness and inefficiency neither to be prevented nor remedied. The vassals could not be dragged to the standard of their lords, nor the lords to the enterprises of their sovereign; and at length, it became necessary to commute their military services for a very inadequate contribution in money.

money. But if the sovereign now felt himself straitened even on ordinary occasions, far short did all his supplies fall of the resources required by the splendid ambition of succeeding monarchs. The subjugation of Scotland and of France, the magnificent enterprises of Edward the First, and Edward the Third, demanded too extensive preparations to be defrayed by any independent revenues appertaining to the crown.

'In these circumstances, the only resource of the monarch was to apply to the liberality of parliament, without whose authority he was precluded, by the Great Charter, from levying any contributions on the subjects; and that assembly, having now, in their grants, a forcible argument to move the sovereign, employed it to procure those confirmations of their rights, which they had formerly obtained by force of arms. The most spirited and ambitious monarchs, the Edwards, intent on the prosecution of their warlike enterprises, made little scruple of purchasing supplies by the redress of abuses, and the enactment of statutes for the protection of popular rights. And so well did the parliaments employ the price of their grants, that, by the conclusion of the reign of Edward the Third, they had ascertained, with considerable accuracy, the limits of their own privileges and the king's prerogative; and had passed those statutes for the protection of persons and property, which are still appealed to against the encroachments of arbitrary power.'

Though the concessions, however, which the crown had made to parliament were often violated by succeeding princes, yet it was apparent that, as civilization advanced, a season would arrive in which the disputes between the King and the Parliament would be brought to a final decision. The civil wars preceding the reign of Henry VII. had extirpated many noble families, and had consequently much impaired the power of the aristocracy: while the vigour and frequently the tyranny of the house of Tudor maintained to the crown the ascendancy which it possessed at their accession. Affairs, however, were much altered when James I. succeeded to the sovereignty. The independent revenue of the crown had been much impaired by repeated alienations of the royal demesnes; the personal character of James was ill fitted to inspire respect; and the progress of knowlege had opened the minds of men to the abuses of government. The great subjects of contention, between the king and the parliament, having taken place in regard to pecuniary supplies, Mr. Macdiarmid is of opinion that many of these disputes would have been avoided, had our ancestors adopted the simple expedient of separating the national from the royal expenditure: but, in this respect, we cannot altogether concur with him. The differences between the king and the two Houses did not originate in pecuniary questions, but in alleged violations of public liberty. The discussion of grievances and of supplies was coupled together, because from the short

duration of the sessions of parliament, and the few subjects submitted to its deliberation, the occasion of a supply afforded the only opportunity of conveying complaints to the throne. Had the differences between the king and the legislature regarded only the appropriation of the public money, ingenuity enough would have been found, even in that unlettered age, to have reconciled their contending views: but the evil lay much deeper, and required a more serious remedy. The groundwork of the passion for liberty, which distinguished the English under the Stuarts, is to be found in the progress of knowlege and civilization; and even had the royal counsels been more skilfully directed, this passion would have shewn itself at no distant period: but the faults of James and Charles called it more immediately into action. It is well known that the rash and oppressive measures of Charles first provoked the resistance of the popular leaders; and that, when once roused, they were emboldened by his wavering character to exceed all moderate bounds. The arbitrary disposition of James I. being less notorious, it may be useful to extract the following passage, referring to the session of 1621, in which the Commons had promised the king a subsidy, but united this supply with a petition and remonstrance:

'The intention of presenting this petition was no sooner reported to James, than, indignant that they should presume to interfere with matters appertaining to his *craft*, as he usually termed it; he wrote to the speaker, intimating his displeasure that the commons should venture "to argue and debate publicly of matters far above their reach and capacity, to his high dishonour, and breach of prerogative royal." He commanded them to abstain, for the future, from all such discussions: and that they might not be ignorant of his resolution to enforce obedience, he desired the speaker to inform them in his name, "that he thought himself very free and able to punish any man's misdemeanours in parliament, as well during their sitting, as after; which he meant not thenceforth to spare, upon any occasion of any man's insolent behaviour."

'To acquiesce in this formidable pretension would have been to renounce all their privileges, and annihilate their utility. They drew up a new petition, equally firm and moderate, defending the tenor of their former remonstrance, and asserting that their freedom of debate, a privilege altogether indispensable, was "their ancient and undoubted right, an inheritance received from their ancestors, and often confirmed by his majesty's own speeches and messages."

'The reply of James was no less explicit and peremptory than his letter to the speaker. He compared their audacious interposition in affairs of state, when called upon for supplies, to the presumption of a merchant, who should imagine that his advance of a loan for carrying on a war, entitled him to dictate its operations. He reminded them that he was an old and experienced king, who needed none of

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their lessons; and advised them, in their deliberations, to recollect the old maxim, that no man should pretend beyond his own craft. As to his son's match, he "desired to know how they could have presumed to determine in that point, without committing high treason?" Their claims as an ancient and undoubted right and inheritance, he could not allow; but accounted it a more proper style, "that their privileges were derived from his grace, and the permission of him and his ancestors." He, however, assured them that they had nothing to dread, if they took care not "to trench upon the prerogative of the crown; which," added he, "would enforce us, or any just king, to retrench them of their privileges, that would pare his prerogative and the flowers of his crown."

'To the agitation produced among the commons, by these explicit pretensions and threats, force was, a few days afterwards, added, when a commission for their adjournment to the eighth of February was lodged in the hands of the clerk. Apprehensive of a dissolution, they proceeded, without delay, to vindicate, in a protestation, their parliamentary rights and privileges. Here their claims to freedom of speech, their inviolability for all proceedings in parliament, and their title to debate and counsel on all affairs of state, were asserted in language equally remarkable for its vigour, temperance, and decision.

'Enraged at this new trespass of the commons, James commanded their journal-book to be produced before him in council; tore out, with his own hand, the leaf which contained the protestation; and, by a speedy dissolution, proved his determination to set their pretensions at defiance. To intimidate them more effectually, he laid his hands on the more active members; some he imprisoned, and others he exiled, under pretence of honourable employments, to Ireland. To silence the murmurs which such proceedings were calculated to excite, he enforced his former proclamations against speaking of state affairs; and commanded the judges, in their several circuits, to do exemplary justice on all such offenders.'

In 1625, Wentworth became conspicuous in the House of Commons as a popular leader: but the bent of his mind was always aristocratic, and disposed him to receive favourably the overtures of the court. Notwithstanding this bias on his part, and the want of his services on the part of the king, so capricious and contradictory was the conduct of the Duke of Buckingham, that several years elapsed before Wentworth finally embraced the royal cause. The Duke first proposed to Wentworth to join the court; and after the offer was accepted, he sought an opportunity of repulsing him by a public affront. He soon afterward apologized for this offence, repeated his overtures, and again disgusted Wentworth by a wanton injury. From councils guided by such a minister, what prudence or consistency was to be expected?

In 1626, Buckingham, alarmed at the merited indignation of the House of Commons, and afraid of an impeachment,

induced his royal master to dissolve Parliament, and to attempt to conduct the machine of government without the interposition of those troublesome assemblies. One of the first measures on the part of the Court was to levy, by its own authority, the duties of tonnage and poundage, in the same way as if granted by Parliament. A note on this transaction, subjoined to page 321, merits notice:

'Mr. Hume, (vol. vi. p. 225, 8vo. edit.) represents this as "a taxation once imposed by Elizabeth:" but nothing could be more unlike than the measures here assimilated. When the mighty preparations for the Armada were announced in England, all ranks of men, alarmed for whatever they held dear, hastened to offer their wealth and personal exertions for the defence of their country. Many noblemen and gentlemen, at their own private expence, equipped vessels and served on board of them in person; and the maritime towns vied with each other in furnishing efficient ships for the public service. It was at this juncture that Elizabeth, by an order of the privy council, regulated the number of vessels which it would be requisite for each sea-port to furnish towards the common defence: but so far did the zeal of the people outrun even the apprehended necessities of government, that several sea-ports, and among the rest London, sent double the number of vessels which the queen had specified. But when this contribution in kind was required by Charles, no such extreme emergency existed: instead of regulating the overflowing liberality of his subjects, he wrested from them what they most reluctantly yielded from a dread of the royal authority; and both the court and the people looked upon the imposition as the means of supplying the wants of government, without having recourse to the ancient forms of the constitution.'

This imposition was followed by others still more odious, and especially by a forced loan from all persons of property. Wentworth refusing, like many other patriots, to contribute, was subjected to personal restraint: but the disgraceful issue of Buckingham's expedition to Rochelle having rendered him universally odious, he endeavoured to regain his popularity by advisi g the king to convene a Parliament. This assembly, having accordingly met in 1628, Wentworth again distinguished himself as the zealous advocate of the popular cause. He went beyond the famous Mr. Pym in his jealousy of prerogative; and when the House deliberated on u'ging the King's sanction to the Petition of Right, which had been ungraciously delayed, Wentworth decidedly maintained that "grievances and supply should go hand in hand, and the latter in no case precede the former."

Parliament being precipitately adjourned, as was usual at this distracted period, the Court became apprehensive of increased opposition on the resumption of its sittings. It

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was judged expedient, therefore, to conciliate the popular leaders by promoting them to offices under the crown. Wentworth in particular became the object of royal attention; and to win him from his party, he was offered a place in the peerage with the title of baron, and the presidency at the Council of York. These lures overcame his patriotism; and he forthwith embarked in the service of the court. The first scene of his exertions was in the capacity of president at the Council of York, where he shewed himself oppressively indefatigable in extending the power of the crown and increasing its revenue. He was called from this station in 1632, to the more important duty of Governor of Ireland, with the nominal title of Depury, as was then customary, but with the full powers of a Lord Lieutenant.

'The grand objects, (says Mr. Macdiarmid,) proposed by the lord deputy, were to render the king's power completely incontroulable in Ireland; to derive from her a revenue sufficient, not only to support her own expenditure, but to replenish the treasury of England; and thus, by every expedient, to render the province as advantageous as possible to the monarch. Schemes he had for enriching Ireland, and plans for promoting her civilization; but "in all these affairs," writes he to the king, "the benefit of the crown must and shall be my principal, nay, my *sole* end."'

Towards the prosecution of these plans of policy, the convening of an Irish Parliament appeared desirable to Wentworth. He was aware that new taxes would be much less odious to the people if sanctioned by their representatives, and he was confident in his own ability to manage that assembly. Charles, who dreaded and hated the name of Parliament, was greatly averse to the measure, but he submitted at last to the urgency of Wentworth. The subsequent extract deserves attention:

'Although Charles at length yielded to these representations, and transmitted the necessary orders for holding a parliament; yet was he careful, in his confidential letters, to caution the lord deputy against this object of his suspicion and abhorrence. "As for that hydra," said he, "take good heed: for you know that here I have found it cunning as well as malicious. It is true that your grounds are well layed, and, I assure you, that I have a great trust in your care and judgment: yet my opinion is, that it will not be the worse for my service, though their obstinacy make you break them, for I fear that they have some ground to demand more than it is fit for me to give." Charles was, not unreasonably, afraid lest his royal sanction formerly given to the graces should be urged as a tenable ground for demanding their confirmation; and he distrusted even the address of Wentworth to elude the requisition.

'The deputy, however, found, in his own dexterity and vigour, resources adequate to the occasion; and while he perfected his projected

jected intrigues, he proceeded, with a high and resolute hand, to subdue every appearance of opposition. When the council, in conformity with the provisions of Poynings' law, assembled to deliberate on the propositions to be transmitted to his majesty, as proper subjects for the discussion of the ensuing parliament: they ventured to suggest several popular laws as necessary to conciliate the houses. And instead of transmitting the proposed bill of subsidies, with blanks to be filled up at his majesty's discretion, they were of opinion that the amount should both be specified and confined within the strictest limits of necessity. Wentworth interrupted their proceedings with indignation. He reminded them that, as privy counsellors, it was their business to study, not what should please the people but what might gratify the king. He assured them, "that his majesty would admit of no conditions, no bargaining for his favour; that he was resolved to procure a permanent and adequate revenue; and that he was desirous to accomplish this by a parliament, only as the most beaten track, *yet not more legal than if done by his royal prerogative, if* the ordinary way should fail him. If the king should be disappointed, where he had every reason to expect compliance, the deputy assured them that, in a cause so just and necessary, he would not scruple to appear at the head of the army, and there either persuade them that his majesty had reason on his side, or perish in the execution of an honourable duty. He gave them to understand that he despaired not of being able to raise a revenue independent of parliament; and that they would assuredly gain most by a ready and cheerful compliance. He reminded them of the irreparable breach which had taken place between the king and the parliament in England, and which had led to such extraordinary and unwelcome measures. "I could tell them," says he, "as one that had held his eyes as open to these proceedings as any one, that to whatever other cause this mischief might be attributed, it arose solely from the ill-grounded and narrow suspicions of the parliament, and their obstinate refusal to yield to the king that confidence which he so justly demanded from his people*."

'This address, uttered with vehemence and passion, produced the desired effect. Confounded and abashed, the council trembled as if they had stood in the presence of a despotic sovereign; and shewed their humble contrition by a silent acquiescence in all his proposals.'

Less obsequious than the Commons, the House of Peers determined to represent their grievances before they considered the

* 'Strafford's Letters, vol. i. p. 237, 238, 239. This language from one, who had so actively infused these suspicions, and who had insisted that redress should ever precede supplies, did not escape the unlucky jeers of his new associates at court. Laud, with his usual love for a jest, writes him, that when that part of his dispatch, which mentioned his reprobation of the turbulent proceedings of the English parliament, was read before the committee of the privy council, Lord Cottington added, to complete the sentence, *Quorum pars magna fui!* Strafford's Letters, vol. i. p. 255.'

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question of supply: but no sooner was Wentworth assured of the assent of the Commons, than he obliged the Lords to alter the course of their proceedings, and to vote the supplies without delay. He silenced in like manner some opposition to his measures which arose in the convocation, and was soon enabled to boast, in his dispatches to the Court, "that if his Majesty was hereafter disappointed of any reasonable desire in Ireland, it might justly be laid to the charge of the Deputy, *for now*," said he, "*the King is as absolute here, as any Prince in the whole world can be.*" Such distinguished services justified him, he conceived, in expecting a mark of royal approbation; and he accordingly preferred a petition for an earldom, the favourite object of his ambition. His application, however, was unsuccessful; because, though Charles acknowleged the value of his services, he was unwilling to draw on himself, by an avowed approval, the odium attached to the despotic actions of the Deputy. Charles also obliged Wentworth to dissolve the sitting Parliament, contrary to his own wishes. The king's motives for urging this dissolution are curious: "My reasons (said he) are grounded upon my experience of Parliaments here: they are of the nature of cats, they ever grow curst with age; so that if you will have good of them, put them off handsomely when they come to any age, for young ones are ever most tractable."

In several respects, however, the policy of Wentworth was highly beneficial to Ireland. He introduced into that country the English laws, he improved surprisingly the military force, and he largely increased the public revenue. Before his Administration, the revenue amounted only to 85,000l. a year, and was always less than the expenditure: but in the fifth year of his government, he had made it surpass this expenditure by an annual sum of 60,000l. At the desire of Archbishop Laud, he attempted to establish a conformity of religious worship in Ireland, on the plan of the Church of England: but here he failed, as might be expected, though he had at least the satisfaction of having acted during the unsuccessful effort with moderation, and of reflecting that "not the hair of a man's head was touched for the free exercise of his conscience." He was more fortunate in the important measure of opening a victualling trade with Spain, a branch of commerce for which the two countries were particularly well adapted. He also laid the foundation of the linen manufacture, which has since produced such extraordinary benefits to Ireland. The blessings of this policy, however, were counteracted by several measures of a very different tendency. He instituted an arbitrary search, in the province of Connaught, into titles pretended to be defective;

fective; and he obliged the holders to purchase confirmations of them, by the payment of fines to the crown. The merit even of his best measures is much diminished, when we find that the grand aim of all his schemes was to make Ireland completely dependant on the crown; a disposition which was clearly shewn by an attempt to establish a monopoly of salt, an article indispensible to the victualling trade of Ireland. The King perceived that the monopoly of such a necessary was equivalent to the possession of arbitrary power, but he was unwilling to risk the odium of so unpopular a measure.

In 1636, Wentworth visited London, and was received by Charles with distinguished approbation. Desirous of having his authority in Ireland confirmed by a mark of royal favour, he now again preferred a petition for an earldom, but was again unsuccessful; Charles being deterred from compliance by the same motive as before, namely, a reluctance to assume responsibility in the eye of the public for the arbitrary proceedings of Wentworth. The Deputy returned to Ireland, where he remained till 1639; when the king's increasing difficulties, and particularly his quarrel with the Scots, called for the presence of so vigilant a minister as Wentworth. It was now no season to be sparing of honours to so zealous a servant, and the earldom was accordingly bestowed. The sequel of Wentworth's life belongs to the history of England, and is consequently much better known than those parts of it which related solely to Ireland. We shall therefore make no other extract than the account of his tragical exit:

'The day of Strafford's execution threw a brighter lustre over his name, than his most memorable transactions. As he quitted the Tower, he looked up to the windows of Laud's apartments, and seeing the aged prelate, who had come to take a last leave of his friend, entreated his prayers and his blessing. The archbishop, lifting up his hands, gave a fervent benediction; and, overcome with the scene, fell motionless on the ground. "Farewell, my lord," cried Strafford, "God protect your innocence." As he passed along to Tower-hill, on which the scaffold was erected, the populace, who eagerly thronged to the spectacle, beheld his noble deportment with admiration. His tall and stately figure, the grave dignified symmetry of his features, corresponded with the general impression of his character: and the mildness, which had taken place of the usual severity of his forehead, expressed repentance enlivened by hope, and fortitude tempered by resignation. In the multitudes around him, he saw nothing to damp his courage, or disturb his composure: the same men who had so lately demanded his death, with turbulent exclamations, now gazed in profound silence on the intrepid victim. He looked upon them with complacence; and, frequently taking off his hat, bowed to them on either hand. In his address to the people from the scaffold, he assured them that he submitted to his sentence with

with perfect resignation; that, freely and from his heart, he forgave all the world. "I speak," said he, "in the presence of Almighty God, before whom I stand; there is not a displeasing thought that ariseth in me to any man." He declared that, however his actions might have been misinterpreted, his intentions had always been upright: that he loved parliaments, that he was devoted to the constitution and to the church of England: that he ever considered the interests of the king and people as inseparably united; and that, living or dying, the prosperity of his country was his fondest wish. But he expressed his fears that it augured ill for the people's happiness, to write the commencement of a reformation in letters of blood. Turning to the friends who attended him on the scaffold, he took a solemn leave; and charged his brother with his blessing and final adieu to his wife and children. "And now," said he, "I have nigh done. One stroke will make my wife a widow, my dear children fatherless, deprive my poor servants of their beloved master, and separate me from my affectionate brother and all my friends. But let God be to you, and to them, all in all." While he disrobed himself, he declared "that he looked on the approach of death without any apprehenssion; and that he now laid his head on the block with the same tranquillity as he had ever laid it on his pillow." He stretched out his hands as a signal to the executioner; and, at one blow, his head was severed from his body.'

Our limits do not now permit us to enter into a lengthened account of the other Lives. That of Burleigh afforded us the least gratification, although the ecclesiastical part of the reign of Elizabeth is certainly a very valuable portion of the volume. We do not mean, indeed, that this life is deficient in original remark: but the author, having departed from the chronological order, has lost in a considerable degree the interest of narrative. He seems to have altered his usual plan in this instance, from an idea that to describe the events of the life of Burleigh was to write the history of England during the forty years of his administration:—but, notwithstanding the weight attached to this consideration, we should have preferred an historical statement (however abridged) of the events of that period in the order of their occurrence. A biographer should studiously keep in mind, that narrative is generally more instructive and always more interesting than disquisition. Sir Thomas More's life is affecting from the virtue of the man, his love of his family, and the unjust sentence under which he suffered. That of Clarendon is important chiefly as disclosing several new instances of the profligate habits of Charles II., and of his ingratitude to his most faithful servants.

As to the style of this work, it is in general unaffected and perspicuous: but its fluency is sometimes impaired by a wrong

inflexion, and sometimes disfigured by verbal inaccuracy. The principal characteristic and recommendation of the book, however, consist in the quantity of new information obtained by the investigation of original documents. All the lives exhibit proofs, in a greater or less degree, of the good effects of this industry: but the discoveries which regard the life of Wentworth are the most important, because that period is perhaps the most disputed part of our history. Royalist-writers have extolled Wentworth as a pattern of disinterested loyalty, while the more violent of their antagonists have branded him as a traitor: yet perhaps no writer would *now* defend Strafford, nor would it be maintained on the other hand that he was guilty of treason. In the present work, nothing is advanced against him except on the evidence of himself and his friends; yet enough is shewn to prove the fallacy of his claims to national respect. The scope of his policy was to render the king as absolute in England as he had previously rendered him in Ireland. On the score of vigilance, activity, and abjectness, he may have been regarded as a very efficient servant of the crown: but even from his importunities to obtain an earldom, it is clear that his attachment to the sovereign was blended with motives of a more personal nature. In regard to the policy of Charles I. himself, the author has preserved the same spirit of impartiality; and he proves from the words, not of his enemies, but of the monarch and of his ministers, that the settled purpose of his conduct was to overcome the obstacles to arbitrary power. Of Charles's private character, we must also think very differently from Mr. Hume, when we find him desiring Wentworth to concede or refuse certain grants, "so as I may have thanks howsoever; that if there be any thing to be denied, you may do it, not I." This unfavourable opinion of Charles will not be lessened by the singular circumstance of his commending Wentworth's measures in private, yet refusing to run the risk of their unpopularity by bestowing any mark of public approbation on his minister.

We are sorry to conclude this article by observing that, since the publication of the work, its promising author has been called away from this scene of existence, at an early age.

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ART. II. *Memoirs of Sir Thomas More*, with a New Translation of his Utopia, his History of King Richard III., and his Latin Poems. By Arthur Cayley, the younger, Esq. 4to. 2 Vols. 2l. 2s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1808.

IN contemplating the character of Sir Thomas More, we behold an eminent lawyer, an upright judge, and a distinguished statesman. Yet those distinctions, however respectable, and however flattering the notice which they attract from cotemporaries, seldom carry down a name to succeeding times; and had this eminent person been illustrated by no other claims, he would not have been so well known as he is in our days. It is the man of letters, the patron and friend of Erasmus, the martyr to integrity and principle, whose memory is fresh in our recollection, and which will endure as long as literature is cultivated and probity is valued.

Our opinion of compositions of the class of that which is before us was expressed in our account of the Life of Sir Walter Raleigh by the same author*; and we stated on that occasion our ideas respecting the qualifications of Mr. Cayley for undertakings of this nature. The sentiments which we then advanced we now see no cause for retracting or for qualifying; except that Mr. Cayley does not, in the present instance, seem amenable to all the animadversions which we then felt ourselves bound to make. Though as a writer he is still at some distance from ease and elegance, we must admit that he has improved in this particular: but he is either no favourite of the historic muse, or he does not pay her sufficiently assiduous court, for he can as yet boast of few of the fascinations and enchantments which she places at the disposal of her successful suitors. It may be expected that we should compliment him on his perseverance: but the value of that quality depends almost wholly on circumstances and collateral matters; and before it can be much commended, its object must be worthy, and the direction which it takes must be judicious. We had intimated that these subjects should only be undertaken by those who would be able to write from a fullness of knowlege, and after long and continued reflection on them: but Mr. Cayley's present conduct is in direct opposition to this hint. He in some measure sunk his first edition of the life of Raleigh; had he done the same with his second, and laboured on a third attempt, that would have been a sort of determined spirit which might have led to the attainment of its object, and which we should have highly

* See M. R. for August, 1806.

applauded:

applauded: but to embark so speedily in a fresh enterprize, of a similar nature, for which he was as slenderly furnished, and to be in haste to present the public with a performance only somewhat less crude and having fewer faults than his former work, is a course which we think will neither serve letters nor advance Mr. Cayley's fame.

The same subject, as will appear by our preceding article, engaged the pen of the late Mr. Macdiarmid: but it did not fall within his plan to enter into minute narrative concerning all the particulars in the life of Sir Thomas More. That detail is in many cases supplied by Mr. Cayley; a circumstance which will intitle his account to a preference with those readers, who will deem nothing uninteresting that relates to the hero of these volumes.

In submiting to the reader a few specimens of this performance, we shall select some of those passages from Sir Thomas More's life which belong to general history:

'More incurred Henry VII.'s displeasure, who wanted to ruin him. He had been elected a burgess (by what means doth not appear), and sat in the parliament, in which Henry, yielding to his ruling passion, demanded a subsidy for the marriage of his eldest daughter to the king of Scotland, rather in a view to his own emolument than to the repayment of the dower which he had given with his child. On this occasion More gave an admirable instance of his integrity, patriotism, and courage, by the strength with which he argued against the demand at that early age, undismayed by the servile senate which surrounded him. Mr. Tyler, a gentleman of the privy chamber who was present at the debate, hastened to inform the king that a beardless boy had frustrated his purpose, and Henry, incensed by such an opposition to the darling propensity of his mind, determined to lose no opportunity of revenge. The means he employed were worthy of his avarice and rapacity, and unworthy of his princely station. More's poverty excluding him from a reasonable prospect of gratification, the king devised a groundless quarrel with his father, and Sir John More was imprisoned in the Tower untill he had paid a fine of one hundred pounds.

'More, shortly after this, met bishop Fox, a privy-counsellor, who called him aside, and, pretending great kindness, promised that if More would be guided by his advice he should soon be restored to the king's favour. But it afterward appeared, that the prelate's design was to inveigle More into a confession of his offence, that a punishment might be inflicted upon him with the semblance of justice. More had, however, the prudence or good fortune to escape this snare. Whitford, the bishop's chaplain, was More's intimate friend. On consulting him, he advised More by no means to follow Fox's counsel, *for my lord, to serve the king's turn, will not stick to agree to his own father's death.* More, of course, returned not to the bishop.

'His

'His abode in England was indeed rendered so unpleasant to him by the king's anger, that he meditated a voyage abroad, a design which was prevented by the death of Henry VII. in 1509. In the interval he lived in retirement, yet, as might be expected from a mind like More's, not without profiting of the occasion by the cultivation of his intellectual talents. We are told that he studied the French language, history, arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music, and became a practical proficient on the violin. His chief assistant in these pursuits was, probably, his extraordinary memory, to which he once expresseth a wish that his wit and learning were equal.'

This anecdote, which reflects so much credit on this great character, proves that Parliament was not always, even under the Tudors, such an assembly as Hume represents it to have been.

The great practitioners of our day will read with a smile the account of the gains of this eminent lawyer:

'Soon after Henry VIII.'s accession, More was appointed one of the under-sheriffs of the city of London, by which office and his profession he was heard to say that he now gained, *without scruple of conscience*, above 400l. per annum. There was at this time no cause of importance in which he was not retained on one side or the other; and *for his learning, wisdom, knowlege, and experience, men had such estimation*, continues Mr. Roper, *that before he came into the service of king Henry VIII., at the suit and instance of the English merchants, he was, by the king's consent, made twice ambassador in certain great causes betwixt them and the merchants of the Stilyard.* Erasmus, in his letter to Hutten, also gives us a high character of the request in which the talents of his friend were held, as well as of his integrity and moderation. Thus More persevered for the present with assiduity in his profession, and he was twice appointed reader at Lincoln's-inn, viz. in the third and sixth years of Henry VIII.'

At this period, it is observed,

'Wolsey was already high in dignity; and More's fame having by this time attracted Henry's attention, the king desired the cardinal to engage him also in his service. Wolsey, we are told, acted honestly at least on this occasion, and endeavoured to accomplish the king's wish. He represented to More the importance of his services, and assured him (for perhaps then he understood not Henry's character) that royal bounty could not but repay them with liberality. More was not, however, to be prevailed upon, for the present at least, to exchange the independent station which his ability as a lawyer now gave him, for that of a courtier; and the excuses he made were for this time admitted. No man ever strove harder, says Erasmus, to gain admittance at court, than More strove to keep out of it.'

Henry was surrounded by great and able men, of whom he was the complete master; and as he never appears to have been jealous of them, we have here a strong presumption that

his own talents were not inconsiderable. The high credit which Sir Thomas maintained with him, for a long time, is a circumstance which does honour to his judgment and discernment; while his subsequent conduct to him shews the violence of the times, and the ungovernable fury of the tyrant's passions.

In adverting to the improbable anecdote which makes Henry reproach his new Queen with being the cause of More's death, Mr. Cayley remarks;

'Whatever credit may be due to this anecdote, those writers who assert that Ann was instrumental to More's execution, have probably been guided by it. Yet she was perhaps rather an approver of the execution than an instigator to it; for it is certain that the temper of her consort, irritable and impetuous as it was, seldom stood in need of instigation to lead it to extremities.

'After having opposed the divorce and second marriage, More became an opponent of what was then termed heresy; of which Ann was a patron. If then only to remove an enemy to herself and her cause, we have no reason to doubt that the queen's voice was in favour of the execution. Nay, if she found the king at any time wavering in his resolution, she may have endeavoured to confirm him in it, and thus have given ground to Henry, in the first moments of his uneasiness, to charge her with having caused the knight's death.

'Cranmer, as well as Ann, had, we know, very considerable influence on Henry's purposes; and had they now exerted all this influence, they might perhaps have saved More's life. But it is pretty clear that the queen never made such an attempt, or Henry could not have reproached her in this manner; and it is too probable that neither her majesty nor the bishop used *every* endeavour in their power to prevent an execution, which fixes an indelible odium upon all the reformers who consented to it.

'We have at least very ample testimonies remaining to us, that the sacrifice of More made an impression, far beyond the limits of his own country, and of deeper stamp than it hath often been in the power of an individual to leave, who, like More, hath been conspicuous chiefly by his virtues in civil life. Many learned of christendom, protestants as well as catholics, who neither feared Henry as their tyrant, nor hated him from private motives of animosity, have animadverted strongly on the cruelty of the knight's execution.

'Upon his friend Dr. Lark, at that time rector of Chelsea, More's death is said to have had so much influence, that he soon after suffered death also, for denying the king's supremacy.

'Mr. Roper relates, that when the emperor Charles received intelligence of More's execution, he sent for Sir Thomas Elliott, the English ambassador at his court, and said to him, *we understand that the king your master hath put his faithful and grave counsellor to death.* Elliott replied, he knew nothing of the matter. *Well*, said the emperor, *it is too true. And this will we say, that had we been master*

of

of such a servant (of whose doings ourselves have had these many years no small experience), we would rather have lost the best city of our dominions, than have lost such a worthy counsellor. This anecdote, Mr. Roper adds, Sir Thomas Elliott reported to himself, to his wife, and to other friends.

'Cardinal Pole, to whom Italy, notwithstanding his relationship to Henry, was the seat of safety, in his book *pro unitate ecclesiastica*, written in answer to Dr. Sampson's justification, by royal authority, of Henry's proceedings, compares More's death to that of Socrates. *I have seen*, saith Pole, *even the greatest strangers, who never knew him, never shared his favour, so much affected by his death, that when they read the history of it, they could not withhold their tears; and they wept at the fame only of his fate. And I at this distance, when writing of his death, although I was not bound to him by any private ties, but loved and esteemed him rather for his virtue and probity, and because I knew his service to his country, yet God is my witness that I shed involuntary tears, which so impede my pen and blot my letters, that I proceed with difficulty.*

'Erasmus, without naming Henry, remarks on the occasion, Plato went unhurt by the Æginans, Diogenes by Philip of Macedon; Antony is hated for the murder of Cicero; Nero for the death of Socrates.'

Of those of Sir Thomas's works which Mr. Cayley has republished in his second volume, he gives the following account:

'His celebrated political romance, UTOPIA, he wrote in Latin about the year 1516. It speedily gained him great applause over Europe, was translated into French, Italian, Dutch, and English, and hath now stood the test of nearly three centuries as a masterpiece of wit and fancy. It hath, however, experienced somewhat of a severe fate, in being better known and more admired abroad than by the author's own countrymen; a circumstance which may in some measure sanction its re-appearance in an English dress of the day, though its merit is greater than to allow of its deriving any advantage by translation.

'It can hardly be questioned, that, under this ingenious fiction of a commonwealth, all his own notions of government were promulgated by More. He creates a kingdom in a new world, and obliquely censureth the defects which he had observed in the old one. More probably wrote this piece before he had heard of Luther; and the Wicklevites and Lollards were the only *heretics* then known in our country. He gave his mind full scope in it, and considered mankind and religion with the freedom of a true philosopher. It is easy to collect from it, what his thoughts then were of religion, the constitutions of the church, and of the clergy at that time. Had he died then, he would probably have been numbered with those, who though they lived in the communion of the church of Rome, yet saw her errors and corruptions, and only wanted fit opportunities of declaring themselves more openly for a reformation.

Upon farther knowledge and more experience of men and things, he appears to have materially changed many of his sentiments; and it is now not very easy, to account how so great an alteration was effected in him.'—

'The HISTORY OF KING RICHARD III. was written about the year 1513, More being then one of the under-sheriffs of London. He wrote it in Latin as well as in English, but it was never finished by him. In the volume of his English works it is printed from a copy said to have been in his own hand-writing; and from that volume it is reprinted in the present work, as a record of our history which is little known, and which is certainly valuable if only on account of the writer.

'More's great-grandson observes of this history, *it is so well penned, that if our chronicles of England were half so well set out they would entice all Englishmen to read them over often*; adding somewhat extravagantly, that no one ever adventured to finish the work, for the same reason that the Venus of Apelles remained unfinished.'

The *Historic Doubts* are treated by Mr. Cayley with unwarrantable severity. If the work has not misled mankind, which the biographer admits, we have the more reason for allowing to the acumen, ingenuity, and elegance which distinguish it, the tribute which is their due.

If every trait that is odious had not marked the character of Henry, it would have been with surprize that we should have read that he had seized the extremely slender provision which the statesman and sage bequeathed to his family. The poor pittance did not escape the grasp of the rapacious and remorseless tyrant.

On this as on a former occasion, Mr. Cayley has been liberal in the insertion of documents which are connected with his work; and as they either proceed from the pen of Sir Thomas More, or relate to that great ornament of our nature, the liberty (we presume) will be rather commended than censured.—We cannot conjecture why Mr. C. should for ever speak of the illustrious subject of his volumes as *the knight*. He must be sensible that, in these days, the description ill comports with the ideas which we associate with the name of Sir Thomas More. In the page of history, Bacon is not denominated *the viscount*, nor Newton *the knight*; neither does it thus designate even a Coke, a Hale, or a Blackstone, who attract notice only as lawyers.

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ART. III. *Observations upon the Windward Coast of Africa*, the Religion, Character, Customs &c of the Natives; with a System upon which they may be civilized, &c. &c. made in the Years 1805 and 1806. By Joseph Corry. 4to. pp. 163. With coloured Plates, 1l. 1s. Plain ditto, 18s. Boards. Nicol. 1807.

THE principal object of this work is to point out the mischiefs attending what Mr. Corry terms the *precipitate* measure of the late administration with respect to the Slave-trade; and to suggest the mode by which he conceives that those evils may yet be remedied, and the greatest possible good effected by our government towards the instruction and amelioration of the African nations. He is a man of sense and much reflection, and he seems to have been guided by honest and benevolent intentions; for which reasons, though we greatly differ from him in our opinion of the measure which he deplores, we consider his suggestions as deserving the candid examination of all who are interested in promoting a general diffusion of the blessings of knowlege and liberty.

In the month of April 1805, Mr. Corry first visited the colony of Sierra Leone, where he then remained only a few days. Hence he proceeded to Goree, where he staid for two or three weeks, making one or two excursions during that period to the main land, and visiting the habitations of and conversing with some of the principal natives. At the latter end of May he sailed for England, and in October of the same year he made a second voyage to Africa. He arrived at Sierra Leone on the 22d of November, and from this time to the month of June following, his principal residence was at Bance Island in that river. In the whole, therefore, he was not an inhabitant of the windward coast quite so much as eight months; which, with the best opportunities and the most unwearied perseverance, must be allowed to be rather a limited period for the acquisition of knowlege sufficient to direct and regulate the national judgment on so important a concern. Still, considered as hints for further inquiry, we repeat that we deem Mr. Corry intitled to the thanks of his country for the observations which he has communicated.

His principal objection to the abolition of the Slave-trade, as effected by the statute 47 Geo. 3. sess. 1. c. 36, is grounded on what he knows respecting the character of the natives and the customs which prevail among them. — They are said to be superstitious, ferocious, cowardly, and (to sum up all) *jealous of the white men*. Superstition and ferocity, however, it ought to be remembered, are common in a greater or less degree to all barbarous nations. They are perpetually at war with

each other, and therefore cowardice is a quality which we must refuse to take for granted on Mr. Corry's simple statement, unless he means that they are afraid of us, and of our superior knowlege in the arts of destruction, and (we wish we could not add) of treachery also. After all, the *jealousy* of which he speaks is the only serious obstacle which he presents to their civilization through our endeavours:—but may it not be reasonably hoped that, by obviating the *cause* of that jealousy, the baneful *effect* may also be gradually corrected and removed? We do not believe this jealousy to be a part of their natural disposition, since, in their peaceable intercourse among each other, he allows that they are frank, honest, and simple. If, then, our own conduct ever shall be such as to admit of their considering us in the light of friends, it seems to follow as a consequence that their behaviour to us will be suitable with this behaviour towards one another.

Mr. C. also says, however, that they are obstinate, inveterately attached to their cruel and barbarous superstitions, averse from all controul, and incapable of being reduced by any other means than those of compulsion, to listen to the voice of clear and unprejudiced reason. This assertion, coming from the mouth of a man who has lived among them *for full half a year*, and during *all that time* appearing to them (however kind his dispositions) only in the same light with those of whom they are accustomed to be jealous, is undoubtedly not to be questioned. We must submit to its authority; although we should be glad to ask Mr. Corry whether he founds his opinion on the ill-success of the Sierra Leone Missionaries? If so, he allows them by inference what he denies them in the most plain and unequivocal terms, the merit of having proceeded in a manner calculated to persuade and soften these untractable subjects. If he will not admit the justness of this conclusion, then he must grant that his opinion of the natives, however well founded, has never yet been regularly put to the test; and it is worth while, for the sake of humanity, at least, to make a fair trial of how much may be done for the benefit of these poor people, without first committing towards them or perpetuating the greatest of all possible injuries, the deprivation of liberty.

Supposing (which we certainly do not admit) Mr. Corry's assertion to be true, that the recognition of a right of property in the *persons* of the Africans is an essential step towards their improvement, yet the extent and modification of that necessary evil may be the subject of future deliberation, and our opinion remains unaltered as to the wisdom and justice of the measure in question. We are agreed with Mr.

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Corry, and with all liberal minds, on the principal point, that the African slavery is a most detestable abomination, and must finally be abolished: but have any of the partial acts of redress, extorted drop by drop from our legislature, contributed essentially to the progress of this abolition? The *condition* of the slaves may have been progressively ameliorated by the restrictions imposed on the avarice of traders and the cruelty of planters: but *the trade* was not affected, and the system, so disgraceful to civilized humanity, was not even checked or discouraged. It was a monstrous evil, which had grown far beyond the reach of lenient measures to subdue: it called loudly for extirpation; and the late act of Parliament has produced that violent but only possible remedy.

Mr. Corry says, however, that we have done no good to Africa;—that we only 'surrendered the African into the hands of other nations less acquainted with his character and situation.' If it be so, we have at least washed *our* hands of the sin by which they were so long soiled: but is it true that the annual exportation of slaves, to which we have put a stop in our own dominions, is only transferred to other nations; and that some thousands of men, in whom we are prohibited from acquiring any property, will in consequence become the property of France, or of America? Had we, previously to the late act, possessed a monopoly in the Slave-trade, and, by passing that act, had set the trade open to all the world besides ourselves, there might be some truth in the assertion that we had thus done the poor fellows a real injury by refusing to purchase them:—but, since France and America, and all other nations on the globe, have always had an equal power with ourselves of entering as deeply as they pleased into this abominable traffic, it is not very easy to discover how the late act of Parliament can have had the smallest tendency to produce the effect which Mr. Corry so strongly reprobates.

Thanks to the wisdom and firmness of our late administration, Mr. Corry's remonstrance to Lord Howick was not regarded, and an end is put to the Slave-trade. How far the project of a more extensive commerce on the African Coast may be agreeable to the interest of our country, is a question wholly unconnected with that subject: but, whatever may be the extent of that commerce, it must become a grave and important question of policy, as well as of humanity, in what manner the inhabitants of Africa may best receive from our hands the greatest blessings attendant on commerce, those of civilization, of religious and moral instruction.

After having stated that, at all events, we heartily deprecate a system of which slavery, in any shape or under any

modification, is to form an ingredient, we shall now proceed to give some account of the plan which Mr. Corry suggests. —His repugnance to the measure of immediate and complete abolition, we have already said, is founded principally, if not entirely, on his knowlege, or his conception, of the African character. On the system of warfare pursued by the native tribes, the champions of the trade have long insisted with so much perseverance, that it may well be considered as the strong-hold of their arguments: but Mr. C. adds nothing to the light thrown on this subject by many able men who have preceded him. The answer to those arguments is plain. By continuing the trade, we encourage and support that very system which we affect to abhor, and are required by every impulse of humanity, if we continue to be connected in any way with the natives, to endeavour to suppress. If it can be proved that our trade has in no instances contributed to excite those wars and promote that slavery which, with true jesuitical hypocrisy, we pretend to deprecate;—if it can moreover be proved that this trade has no tendency whatever to produce such an effect, or in other words that avarice has no influence over the mind of a single native chief;—then it may become worth our while to consider the full force and bearing of this argument of our opponents.

Mr. Corry then offers his opinion respecting the impracticability of African colonization without a partial continuance, at least, of the slave-trade:

'The colonization of the coast of Africa, in my estimation, is impracticable, from its climate being uncongenial to the constitution of Europeans, and from the system of slavery existing among its inhabitants, without the employment of natives in their present condition. The requisite authority to establish a system of labour, upon remunerative principles, and with industrious vigour, cannot otherwise be supported; and a misapprehension on this principle has been one of the great causes, as I conceive, of the failure of the Sierra Leone Company in establishing their agricultural objects. They attempted, in prosecution of their humane project, an agricultural establishment on the Boolam shore, opposite to their colony, where they had a choice of good lands: they proceeded upon the principles of their declaration, "that the military, personal, and commercial rights of blacks and whites shall be the same, and secured in the same manner," and in conformity with the act of parliament which incorporated them, more immediately that clause which relates to labour, namely, "not to employ any person or persons in a state of slavery in the service of the said Company;" but they have totally failed; and in one of their reports, among other reasons, it is acknowledged, that for want of authority over the free natives whom they employed, their agricultural establishment on the Boolam shore was unsuccessful. Let not those worthy and truly respectable characters, whose humanity has induced them

them to risque an extensive property, *unhappily expended without effect*, here consider that I mean to militate against their views, but rather may they acquiesce in the truth, and devise other expedients to promote their beneficent objects and to *assimilate the natives* of the country with their views. They have not only to lament a non-productive profusion of their property, but an *alienation of the natives*, occasioned by a misconception of their character, by distracted councils, and the narrowed ideas of the agents they employed to prosecute their humane endeavours, but also by a desolate waste in their colony, without a regular feature of cultivation in its vicinity.'

The whole sum of the preceding observations seems to be this: "the Sierra Leone Company, having set out on the principle of employing no slaves, failed in all their objects:"—but it requires much more than has been stated by Mr. Corry, to prove to us that the Sierra Leone Company failed *because* they did not employ slaves, and this is the only assertion which it is of any value to his argument to establish. Before any farther steps are taken in colonizing or improving the state of Africa, it would certainly be very becoming in the legislature to institute a strict and *impartial* inquiry into the *causes* of the failure of the Sierra Leone Company; and provided that the commissioners appointed for that purpose were really men of free and liberal minds, and chosen from any tolerable distance beyond the magic circle of Clapham, we believe that the result would be not particularly favourable to the conclusions which Mr. Corry wishes to draw. In the first place, it seems highly probable that, as long as the system of slavery was encouraged (or, which is the same thing, not opposed) by our government, a small company of men setting out on a different principle acted under every possible disadvantage. Allowing those men the highest merit for their benevolent intentions, it is impossible to conceive that their own interests were not connected with the interests of humanity in their minds; nor is it to be imagined that, when they found themselves starving on justice, and all around them growing fat on the profits of iniquity, they did not soon begin to consider as hopeless that which they commenced with expectations of success by much too sanguine, and utterly unfounded on any principles of reason or knowlege of human nature. Had government afforded the utmost possible facilities to their undertaking, and continued to uphold them under every disadvantage and difficulty, a great length of time, and a determined perseverance in the most wise and enlightened plans of reform and civilization, would have been necessary to the establishment of a regular and extensive system of commerce on their benevolent plan. What must be the issue, then, when

government,

government, having once given them a charter, concerned itself afterward no farther in their welfare, but as before still countenanced the rival system? With all these difficulties, the Sierra Leone Company might yet have been ultimately successful, had it not been for a secret vice which was incorporated with its earliest existence, and which, when transplanted into Africa, grew up to be its bane and its destruction. The influence of Methodism at this very moment threatens the existence of our empire in India. It is therefore not surprizing if that, and that only, thwarted all the hopes of the real friends of liberty and religion in Africa. Mr. Corry himself seems to be so fully persuaded of the baleful effects of this influence, that we can only wonder how, with so powerful and immediate a cause before his eyes, he can persevere in attributing the ill-success of the Sierra Leone Company to the absence of slavery. It is true that the company itself assigned the latter reason;—that is to say, they sacrificed the very principle on which they began, rather than confess the evils of that bigotry which blinded them, or the errors of those agents and missionaries whom they themselves employed.—In reply to their own admission, let them only hear what Mr. Corry himself, their friend and eulogist, has to say on that topic:

'I can bestow no panegyric adequate to the sense I entertain of that active goodness which prompted the Directors of the Sierra Leone Company to the undertaking I have alluded to; but with all due deference I conceive that they have mistaken the practicable grounds, upon which the seeds of civilization, and the principles of Christianity, can be effectively displayed to the African. The Directors had to contend with a peculiar co-mixture of passions, licentious habits, and hereditary vice; to eradicate these, and to rescue the natives from their natural state, alluring and progressive measures were necessary, founded upon an accurate investigation of their characters and policy, and not by the fulminations of intemperate zealots, and theoretical speculators. The beneficent views of the Sierra Leone Company have been unaccountably perverted, and have been the distorted instruments in prolonging, rather than extirpating, the barbarism of the African: it is therefore a subject of great regret to the benevolent supporters of this establishment, that an unprofitable expenditure of their property is the only existing perpetuity of their humane interference. Will it be found that the Company's agents have introduced the arts of civilization among any tribe or nation in Africa, that they have made any progress in agriculture, although possessing a very extensive tract of fertile lands, or that they have converted them into any of the regular features of cultivation? Have they explored or brought into action any of the attainable and lucrative branches of natural commerce, abounding in the region they inhabit, or do they employ a single ship in a regular trade

trade with the mother country? Will it be found that they have unfolded the doctrines of Christianity, in their native purity and simplicity, to the unenlightened African, or converted, by their preaching and example, any tribe or nation among them?—The spacious waste is destitute of the appearance of domestic industry, or respectable character; it exhibits only a tissue of indolence, hypocritical grimace, petulant and assuming manners, and all the consequences of idleness and corrupted morals. To succeed in this beneficent undertaking, and to expunge the inveterate nature of the African, his prejudices, and inherent customs, progressive approaches upon his present condition are indispensibly requisite, under the attractive influence of agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and navigation.

'Accidental events, concurring with political causes, frequently render the best concerted measures abortive, and retard their progress, but unquestionably the above-mentioned are the means by which the African may be manumitted, and his condition improved. The wisest laws operate but slowly upon a rude and fierce people, therefore the measures of reformation are not to be successfully performed by a coup-de-main, nor are the hereditary customs of Africa to be erased by the inflammatory declamations of enthusiasm, but by a liberal policy and the ascendency of the polished arts of society. Commerce, the chief means of assembling, and agriculture of assimilating, mankind, must first assume their fascinating and alluring attitudes to the African upon his native plains. Too impetuous and indolent to observe the forms, or enter into the requisite details of business, he contemplates the effect, without investigating the cause; but, when he discovers his own comparative wretchedness, he will be roused from his innate indolence, his powers will be stimulated, and his emulation excited to attain a more exalted state.'

Having sufficiently explained our own views on this matter, and pointed out the general course of Mr. Corry's argument, together with our objections to the main principle on which it proceeds, we shall now without farther comment lay before our readers the substance of his proposal:

'The system of colonization which I, with all submission, submit to the legislature, and to my country, is this:

'1st. To employ natives in whom a recognition of property shall exist, as unavoidable from the present condition of Africa.

'2d. To procure them from as wide an extent of the most powerful nations and tribes upon the sea coast as is practicable, and from the Slatees or slave merchants from the interior countries.

'3d That a requisite number of these should be fit for the present purposes of labour, and for an immediate initiation into the mechanic arts, as applicable to the local circumstances of the colony, and the useful purposes of life.

'4th. That a proportionate number of males and females should form the complement, from the age of 5 to 7 years, and be placed in a seminary of instruction, under the inspection of the government of the colony, and under tutors approved of in England.

'5th.

'5th. That this establishment of a seminary of instruction in Africa, under the administration of the colony, shall have for its bases the initiation of these children, as calculated to their sexes, into the rudiments of letters, religion, and science, and the progressive operation of education adapted to the useful purposes of life.

'6th. That when thus prepared, the necessary avocations of domestic œconomy, agriculture, and mechanics, employ the next period of their existence, under the superintendance of the European colonist.

'7th. When arrived at the period of mature years, and thus instructed, to become the object of legislative enquiry and investigation as to their attainments, character, fidelity, and mental improvement.

'8th. That such as produce clear testimonials of capacity, knowledge, and acquirement, become immediately objects of manumission.

'9th. That all proceedings in this process of education and emancipation, become matters of record in the colony, subject to such control and investigation as his Majesty's Government may, in its wisdom, appoint, from time to time, to guard against the corruption and prejudices of the legislative authority of the colony.

'10th. That thus endowed, they are to be dismissed to their respective countries and nations, employed as agents in various capacities of civilized pursuit, and to promote the commercial and agricultural views of the colony, and disseminate their allurements among their tribe, which, under the direction of the unerring dispensations of divine providence, might, in process of time, diffuse civilization and Christianity throughout the utmost region of Africa, its inhabitants become members of civilized and Christian society, and their country, in process of time, be extricated from its barbarism.

'It is for the legislature to devise a system adapted to the colonies, calculated to their local situations, and to remove the invidious distinction now subsisting between the African there, and in his native country; by these means the entire Negro race may participate in the blessings of civilization and revealed religion, in every quarter where our extensive dominion and influence exist.

'By adopting the *first proposition*, a sufficient authority would be maintained to enforce the labour necessary to produce profit, and competent to excite emulation, which is a powerful passion in the character of the African; for in every effort he discovers a strong spirit of competition.

'Through the medium of the 2d proposition, the natives of an extensive district would be collected under the instruction of the European colonist, and, in process of time, would become the happy instruments of initiating their tribe or nation into the arts of civilization, and in promoting the commercial interests of the colony, which may eventually be diffused throughout Africa.

'By the third expedient, an adequate portion of effective labourers would be obtained to commence vigorous operations.

'In consequence of the 4th, 5th, and 6th, a portion of children of both sexes would be procured at a moderate rate, in their unadulterated

terated condition, who would be susceptible of any impressions, free from the control of their parents, and the contamination of their example, into whose tender minds might be instilled the principles of moral virtue, religious knowledge, and the civil arts of life.

'Through the adoption of the 7th and 8th, the objects of humanity might be realized, and slavery, with the slave-trade, make a natural exit from the shores and country of Africa.

'By the 9th, the corrupted and interested endeavours of the colonists to retard the work of emancipation would be controlled; and, by the patronage of Government, pecuniary resource and support be obtained, in aid of individual and corporate endeavours, the requisite population from the parent state acquired, and the indispensible authority established to secure success to any further attempts at colonization upon the coast of Africa.

'And through the 10th expedient, an extended population would enjoy the advantages of instruction and example, and our ascendency and commerce be increased by a rapid process, which would predispose the natives to throw open the avenues of their country to our enterprize and research.

'Thus may the long seclusion of the African from the light of truth and revealed religion be annihilated, his inveterate jealousies allayed, his nature regenerated, and his barbarism fall before the emanations of enlightened existence. In the interim, an unobscured path to the interior of his country will be opened, and our commerce therewith flow through a less polluted channel; while the Negro, now the victim of barbarism in his native land, may be extricated from his thraldom, and received into the circle of civilized life, which he has hitherto been excluded from, and to which providence, without doubt, in its mysterious and incomprehensible administration of human affairs, has designed him to arrive.'

We have been induced, by Mr. Corry's own statement of his design in publishing, to consider his work rather as a book of argument than as a book of travels,—as the exposition of a theory, more than as a detail of facts. It is not, however, unproductive of amusement and information on points on which travellers generally expatiate, the manners and customs of nations, the appearances of countries, their productions and commercial advantages; and had we not conceived that our duty engaged us to consider so very fully as we have done the scope and tenor of his principal object, we should have felt great pleasure in accompanying Mr. Corry more closely in his travels, and in transcribing many of the details with which he has contributed to instruct and amuse us. We must add, as a farther excuse for having devoted ourselves so exclusively to that which may be called in a more immediate manner the *political* part of his publication, that it comes before us in somewhat of a semi-official shape, being dedicated by permission to Lord Castlereagh.—The engravings are very pleasingly tinted.

ART. IV. *The Transactions of the Linnéan Society of London.* Vol. VIII. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. White. 1807.

FROM the communications in the present volume, we derive the most satisfactory evidence that the labours of this highly respectable society are continued with undiminished vigour. The papers which it contains, and which are nineteen in number, have been chiefly furnished by the learned contributors to the former volumes: they are almost all interesting; and some of them may be justly considered as of peculiar importance. Without farther preliminary remark, then, we proceed to furnish our readers with a sketch of them.

Observations on the Perigynous Insertion of the Stamina of Plants. By Richard Anthony Salisbury, *Esq. F. R. S. V. P. L. S.*—Few botanists have laboured so much as the author of this paper, in tracing the natural alliances which exist among vegetables, for the purpose of establishing, on fixed and obvious principles, their natural orders. In examining the characters on which this method of arrangement is founded, his attention was directed to the natural orders of Jussieu, and to the principles of his classification; and Mr. Salisbury discovered that the celebrated French botanist had assumed a principle as the foundation of some of his classes and orders, derived from a supposed peculiarity of structure which seems to have no existence in nature. This question forms the subject of the present paper.

According to Jussieu, the stamina of a great many plants are inserted in the calyx: to which peculiarity he has given the name of *perigynous insertion*; and from this circumstance he has derived the characters of many of his classes, and some of his orders. Mr. S. however considers this mode of insertion as quite imaginary; and he asserts 'that there is no instance whatever in the whole vegetable kingdom, of stamina being inserted in the calyx; nor is this (says he) a cavil respecting terms; for if my ideas be true, the difficulty of distinguishing calyx from corolla will rarely occur, and the designation of each of those parts corresponds more exactly with its real office and importance in the vegetable economy.' By disproving the existence of this supposed perigynous insertion, Mr. S. farther observes that many of the classes and some of the orders in the French arrangement must be given up.

In examining a great many flowers, with regard to the insertion of their several parts, Mr. S. constantly found that there is one common point, which is more or less conspicuous, but generally so distinct as, from its appearance and importance, to merit a particular designation; for in it he suspects that all

the

the necessary changes in the vessels, which take place in the production of the various parts of the flowers and fruit, have their origin. This common point of insertion he denominates *torus*, to distinguish it from the receptaculum of aggregate and syngenesious flowers. It was first described by Adanson under the name of *disk*.—Having shewn the inaccuracy and want of precision of almost all botanists in their descriptions and definitions of the calyx and corolla of flowers, and particularly of the connection of those parts with the stamina, Mr. S. exposes the error of the French botanist; demonstrating, as it appears to us, in a very satisfactory manner, the real insertion of his perigynous genera, by an examination of the plants in which it was supposed to exist. Of these our limits will admit only a few to be noticed.

The first perigynous order includes the *palms*; three living genera of which Mr. S. examined; and these, as well as different dried specimens, and the drawings in the Coromandel plants, which he inspected for the same purpose, left no doubt on his mind that the stamina of the whole order are inserted in a distinct hypogynous receptacle. Jussieu himself, indeed, seems half convinced of the nature of this insertion, as appears from the following query cited in the paper; *imis laciniis calycinis, (an potius glanduloso corpori hypogyno?)*—*Asparagi*, the second perigynous order, have also the stamina inserted, either in the corolla, or in a distinct hypogynous receptacle. *Lily of the valley* and *alstroemeria* are examples belonging to this order, recommended by the author as peculiarly convenient for examination.—*Junci* constitute the third perigynous order; and in the third section of this order, which includes the *tripetaloideæ* of Linné, the insertion of the stamina in a large hypogynous receptacle is remarkably distinct.

Class fourteen of Jussieu contains thirteen orders. The author describes one genus of each order, for the purpose of illustration; and we shall mention a few of them with the same view. In *sempervivum*, a genus of the first order, the calyx, corolla, and stamina are inserted on a shallow, cotyliform body, which remains in full vigour after all the other parts have decayed. All the parts of the flower in *Saxifraga*, belonging to the second order, proceed from a thick, callous, persistent margin. *Cactus*, a genus of the third order, has no calyx: its numerous stamina gradually coalesce with the petals into a thick neck. The *receptaculum* in *Oenothera* and *Epilobium*, of the sixth order, is so long and remarkable, that beginners in botany hesitate to consider it as a calyx. The *cherry* and *apple* blossom, *Fragaria*, *Potentilla*, *Comarum*, *Geum*, and *Rubus*, which belong to the tenth perigynous order, afford the most decisive proofs

of the existence of a receptacle totally distinct from the calyx. Many of the genera under *Leguminosæ*, which constitute the eleventh order, also exhibit a very striking difference between the receptacle and calyx. This is the case in *Cassia*, in which the receptacle is persistent. It is likewise distinct and obvious in *Trifolium*.

We cannot enter more minutely into the detail of this curious paper, which we recommend to the attention of our botanical readers: but we must remark that some of the words and phrases, seemingly from an affectation of ease and familiarity, are rather exceptionable; such as *dubia*, for *doubts*; *comet like*, for the legitimate and universally acknowleged epithet *excentric*; *to open the eyes a little wider*, for *studying more attentively*; and we submit to the good sense of the author, whether the paper, in the perspicuous manner in which he has treated the subject, would have been less satisfactory if the illustration, by stating the analogy between vegetables and animals, (as he has done in two places,) had been entirely omitted. Such analogies are not very obvious: but if they were more striking and illustrative than they really are, when they contain any thing offensive to delicacy, it were surely better to avoid them altogether. We are perfectly aware that the example of Linné himself may be urged in favour of this mode of illustration: but let it be recollected that the excellency and accuracy of description, not the quaintness of allusion and extravagance of analogy, in which that great man too often indulged, are worthy of imitation.

A Descriptive Catalogue of the British Testacea. *By* William George Maton, *M. D. &c. and the Reverend* Thomas Rackett, *M. A. &c.*—We are glad to find the sentiments of the respectable authors of this memoir correspond exactly with our own, which we ventured to express on the subject of analogy in the conclusion of our remarks on the former paper. Linné, indeed, in his descriptions of shells, and his fancied analogies between them and some parts of animals, has outraged all delicacy. Sensible of this error of the Swedish naturalist, the authors of this catalogue have most judiciously discarded his objectionable language; and we are fully persuaded that their descriptions, devoid of false and glaringly offensive ornaments, will not on that account be less agreeable to the student of natural history, nor less relished by readers of good taste.

On another point, also, our sentiments precisely coincide with the views of these gentlemen; viz. in retaining the genera of Linné undivided and entire. We allude to their introductory observations relative to the division made by some writers

ters on Conchology, of the genus *Lepas* into two, and the construction of a new genus under the denomination *Balanus*; to the separation of the pectinated species from Ostrea, and arranging them under a new genus, *Pecten*; and to the division of *Serpula*, as was done by Mr. Montague, into two genera. The change of names in natural and physical science, which have been long established, and have become familiar by usage, should never be made from trivial anomalies; and it should not be indulged unless it be imperiously required by some striking peculiarity of structure, or some obvious diversity of character: changes of this kind, admitted on slight grounds, infallibly lead to disorder and confusion.

The Linnéan genus *Sabella* is here excluded from the *Testacea*, because the animals of this genus, having coverings of agglutinated sand, are considered by the authors as more nearly resembling the larvæ of insects than testaceous *vermes*. From our own observations, we are satisfied that some of them really are the larvæ of insects, but we have considerable doubts whether the whole genus ought to come under this description. We recommend the investigation of this point to the attention of the authors of this paper, and other naturalists whose pursuits are directed to such inquiries: but we must dissent from the opinion of the present writers in considering the real shell as an organized *integral*, as they express it, of the contained animal. The formation of shells is conducted by *juxta-position* or *accretion* of calcareous matter, secreted by the animal; and not, as was supposed by some naturalists, by *intus-susception*, or the circulation of matter through the body of the shell by means of a system of vessels. This fact has been completely established, and amply illustrated, by the fine experiments of Reaumur: indeed, we regard the method in which shells are formed as one of the best ascertained points of the wonderful and curious processes of nature.

This long and elaborate treatise, which occupies more than half of the volume, may be considered as one of the most complete catalogues of British *testacea*; and we are decidedly of opinion that it will prove one of the most valuable guides to the student of British conchology. A numerous list of synonyms is given, and the *habitats* are carefully noted from the most authentic writers, from the observations of the authors themselves, or from those of their friends. Besides the specific characters, which the writers profess to have chiefly taken from Linné, short descriptions are occasionally introduced, where they seemed necessary in the discrimination of any species. The whole is illustrated by five plates, containing 61 figures, elegantly and accurately drawn and engraved, and coloured with

great delicacy and truth. Here it was the design of the authors to give figures of such shells only as had been incorrectly represented in the works of former naturalists, or those of closely allied species; convinced that their distinctive characters would be more precisely ascertained by a faithful representation, than by the most laboured description.

The essential characters of the genera, and a tabular view of the species, arranged under each genus, would have been a valuable addition to the catalogue, and would have undoubtedly rendered it more acceptable to the young conchologist. The first would have saved him the trouble of having recourse to other works, in order to determine the genus; and the second might have served the purpose of an index, by referring to the page containing the description of the species.

Some Account of the Pitch-Lake on the Island of Trinidad, in Two Letters: the first from Samuel Span, *Esq. to* James Tobin, *Esq.*; *and the other from Mr.* Tobin *to* Charles Hatchett, *Esq. with Observations by Mr.* Hatchett.—The pitch-lake, which is the subject of these letters, is about a mile from the sea, and about 100 feet above its level, among the highest land in that quarter of the island. It measures three or four miles in circumference, is intersected by streams of pure water, abounding with small fish, and is surrounded by high woods, excepting in places in which it has been cleared for the cultivation of the sugar cane. It appears, too, that the same bituminous substance forms the substratum of all the lands around the lake, has a covering of vegetable mould from two to four feet thick, and runs under its coat of earth from the borders of the lake to the sea; and the cliffs, forming abrupt precipices of from 50 to 100 feet high, on this part of the shore, are composed of the same bituminous mineral in a hard, compact state. The whole contents of the lake are supposed by some to consist entirely of pure, unmixed, bituminous matter, which is supported, according to Mr. Span, by a lake of water underneath. Specimens of the bitumen, collected by that gentleman from different parts of the lake, were sent to Mr. Tobin, and by the latter were transmitted to Mr. Hatchett for examination. They proved to be really a porous strong matter, impregnated with bitumen, as Mr. Hatchett ascertained not only from their external characters, but also from the analysis of some of them, 100 parts of which afforded as follow:

Silica,

Silica, - -	60
Alumina, - -	19
Oxid of Iron, - -	10
Carbonaceous matter, by estimation,	11
	100

The result of Mr. Hatchett's experiments being communicated to Mr. Tobin, the latter farther observes that the substance supposed to be bitumen is employed in Trinidad as a material for pavement, and bears, without alteration, the heat of a tropical sun, which shews that it is not pure bitumen. From the whole, Mr. Hatchet concluded that the pure inflammable matter, whether in the state of petroleum or asphaltum, (that is in the liquid or the solid form,) is most probably found in cavities and fissures only; and that the greatest proportion of the mass, hitherto supposed to be pure mineral pitch or asphaltum, is nothing more than a porous stone of an argillaceous quality, much impregnated with bitumen. The substratum of the soil around the lake is probably of the same nature.

Description of a new Species of Lichen. By Dawson Turner, *Esq.*— This new species of lichen, Mr. Turner observes, is closely allied to *Lichen Chrysocephalus*, described by himself in the preceding volume of the Lin. Tran. p. 88. To the present species, he gives the name of *Phœocephalus*, from the peculiar nature of its crust. The following are its specific characters: *Lichen crustâ e granulosâ sub foliaceâ fuscescente; bacillis nigris; tuberculis rufo-fuscis; margine luteo-albicante.* This lichen grows on the sides of old barns, in large patches, which are only conspicuous to the naked eye at a distance from their black sooty appearance, resembling, on a cursory view, *lichen niger* or *umbrinus*. Mr. T. found it at Brusiard in Suffolk, and at Lakenham in Norfolk. The description is accompanied by two coloured figures, the one of the natural size, and the other magnified.

Account of chrystallized oxalic Acid produced from the Boletus Sulphureus. By Robert Scott, *M.D. of Dublin.*—The Boletus, from which oxalic acid was obtained, was found about the middle of August, in a young state, growing on the trunks of old decaying cherry trees. Dr. Scott, having preserved a specimen for some time, observed on the upper surface needle-like-crystals, which seemed to have ruptured, in the progress of formation or evolution, the investing coasts of that surface. The chrystals, by the usual tests of solutions of lime and barytes, proved to be oxalic acid nearly in a state of purity, or

combined with a small portion of pot-ash. This curious fact, Dr. S. observes, merits farther investigation, with the view of ascertaining what influence may be exerted by peculiarity of soil and growth in the formation of oxalic acid in the species of fungus in which it has been detected; and whether other fungi in similar circumstances afford similar products. After the saline matter was separated, the fungus was subjected to distillation in an earthen retort; and, thus treated, it yielded a watery fluid containing some ammonia, a thick tar-like extractive matter, and carbonic acid, carbonated hydrogen, and hygrogen gases. The coaly residuum, burnt in the open air, afforded by lixiviation a portion of pot-ash.

Observations respecting a Species of Phalarope, and some other rare British Birds. By Mr. T. W. Simmonds.—We have here only the record of an abortive attempt to establish a new species of phalarope, merely from observing some slight variety in the plumage of a few individuals which the author procured in a voyage to the Orkneys and the Western islands of Scotland; with a few notices of the *habitats*, or at least the summer abodes, of about a dozen other species of aquatic birds. We suspect this paper to be the work of a very young naturalist.

An Account of some remarkable Shells, found in the Cavities of a Calcareous Stone, called by the Stone-Masons, Plymouth Rag. *By* William George Maton, *M.D.* &c. *and the* Rev. Thomas Rackett, *&c. With some additional Observations relative to the Mytilus Lithophagus. By* Mr. James Sowerby.—Of the shells found in this stone, the *Mytilus Lithophagus* Lin. chiefly attracted notice; because that species of shell seemed to be the original inhabitant of the cavities, which it would appear it had formed for itself. The other species, which occupied vacant cavities, were considered as intruders; for, contrary to the first mentioned species, they did not exactly fit those cavities. The intruders or strangers were *Mytilus Bidens*, *Ostrea Ephippium*, a species approaching to *Ostrea Perna*, *Mya Dubia* of Pennant, *Arca Reticulata* of Gmelin, and three other unascertained species, one of which seemed to be a species of *Venus*.

The stone containing the shells was found by Mr. Sowerby in the suburbs of London, where it was laid down for repairing a road. The stone-masons of the neighbourhood informed him that it was brought from Plymouth: but this they inferred merely from its resemblance to a stone which forms a ridge of rocks in the vicinity of that town. According to the learned authors of the present paper, it seems highly improbable that it is a production of any part of Britain, since only one of the species of shells which it contains, the *Mya Dubia*, is a native of this

country; and therefore they naturally conclude that the stone in question is brought as ball st from some other part of the world. This being the case, we were somewhat surprized to find it announced in the title of the paper as *Plymouth-rag*, on the authority of the masons, and merely from its resemblance to that stone; when, in the course of a few sentences, abundant proof is brought forwards that it is not procured in any part of our own island. We notice this circumstance from its obvious tendency to mislead.

Account of the Bromus Triflorus of Linnæus. *By* James Edward Smith, *M.D.*—We understand that the species of *Bromus*, which is the subject of this paper, was discovered by Mr. Crowe, on his estate at Soham, Norfolk, about 26 miles from Norwich. Dr. Smith observes that it is a new plant in our British Flora, and as it is but little known to botanists in general, their descriptions and synonyms are involved in considerable obscurity: but, according to the principles laid down by Dr. Smith himself *, by which the generic characters of *Bromus* and *Festuca* may be more distinctly marked, he considers the plant in question as a *Festuca*; for the inner glumes, which in *Bromus* are strongly fringed or pectinated, are in this plant finely downy at the edge, and its awns are sometimes also perfectly terminal.

Description of a Species of Jerboa, found in the Upper Provinces of Hindustan, between Benares and Hurdwar. *By Lieut. Col.* Thomas Hardwicke.—Col. H. gives the following as the specific characters of this animal:

'DIPUS INDICUS.

'*Dipus Palmis tetradactilis, plantis pentadactilis, caudâ elongatâ apice floccosâ fuscâ, corpore fulvo lineolis fuscis.*'

This species of Jerboa is about the size of the common house rat; the head is large in proportion to the body; the ears are large, rounded, erect, and almost naked; the eyes are also large, and of a shining black; the fore legs one third shorter than the hind legs. The length of the animal from nose to tail is six inches; length of the tail, seven inches; weight of the whole animal, from four to five ounces. A few notices concerning its natural history shall be given in the words of the author:

'These animals,' says he, 'are very numerous about cultivated lands, and particularly destructive to wheat and barley crops, of which they lay up considerable hoards in spacious burrows, near the scenes of their plunder. They cut the culms of the ripening corn

* Lin. Trans. IV. 276.

just beneath the ears, and convey them thus entire to one common subterraneous repository, which, when filled, they carefully close, and do not open for use till supplies abroad become distant and scarce. Grain of all kinds is their favourite food, but in default of this, they have recourse to the roots of grass, and other vegetables. About the close of day they issue from their burrows, and traverse the plains in all directions to a considerable distance; they run fast, but oftener leap, making bounds of four or five yards at a time, carrying the tail extended in a horizontal direction. When eating, they sit on their hind legs like a squirrel, holding the food between their fore feet. They never appear by day, neither do they commit depredations within doors. I have observed their manners by night, in moon-light nights, taking my station on a plain, and remaining for some time with as little motion as possible. I was soon surrounded by hundreds, at the distance of a few yards but on rising from my seat, the whole disappeared in an instant, nor did they venture forth again for ten minutes after, and then with much caution and circumspection.

'A tribe of low Hindus, called Kunjers, whose occupation is hunting, go in quest of these animals at proper seasons, to plunder their hoards of grain, and often, within the space of twenty yards square, find as much corn in the ear as could be crammed into a common bushel. They inhabit dry situations, and are often found at the distance of some miles out of the reach of water to drink. In confinement, this animal soon becomes reconciled to its situation, and docile; sleeps much in the day, but when awake, feeds as freely as by night. The Hindus above-mentioned esteem them good and nutritious food.'

The description is accompanied by a figure, of the natural size of the animal.

Characters of three new Species of Boronia. *By* James Edward Smith, *M. D.*—The first notice of this genus of plants was published by Dr. Smith in 1798, in his Tracts on Natural History, with descriptions and figures of four species. The three new species, of which the characters are detailed in the present paper, were brought from the western coast of New Holland by Mr. Menzies. For the sake of comparison, Dr. S. exhibits the characters of the whole seven species, of which he forms two sections; the first having compound, and the second simple leaves. The three new species are *Alata*, belonging to the first section; *Crenulata* and *Denticulata*, with simple leaves, and therefore arranged in the second section.

Account of a Storm of Salt, which fell in January, 1803. *By* Richard Anthony Salisbury, *Esq.*—We learn that the attention of the author was first attracted to the phænomena which form the subject of this paper, by observing in January 1803, an east window of his house covered on the outside with an apparent hoar frost. This substance, when examined, was found

to be salt; and it appeared that it was also abundantly deposited in the garden and neighbouring fields. According to the suggestion of Sir Joseph Banks, to whom the author had communicated the circumstance, his inquiries in the course of the following summer were particularly directed to discover the effects of this storm on vegetables; and he found that the cedars of Libanus suffered considerably, and that the Weymouth pines, on the side exposed to the storm, were defoliated, while the Spruce firs on the same spot remained uninjured. Even the Scotch fir, when fully open to the force of the wind, also suffered: as was particularly the case, it is observed, on Hounslow Heath: 'but what is remarkable,' says the author, 'some of the clumps there wholly escaped, although no obvious reason occurs from their situation, why they should not all have suffered alike.' The leaves of the Portugal laurel were scorched, and in some places even the tops of the branches mortified. 'The furze of our commons,' (adds Mr. S.) 'if I may judge from the east side being invariably most decayed, is also affected by it; yet I saw this plant in abundance in Devonshire and Cornwall, where it must be perpetually exposed to such blasts.' At Bulstrode, seventy miles from the mouth of the Thames, the trees seemed to have suffered severely. The first crops of pease, beans, early radishes, &c. were generally destroyed; and ranunculuses instantly perished: but winter aconites, anemonies, snow-drops, crocuses, hyacinths, and narcissuses, were not affected. In February 1804, Mr. S., while at Norwich, observed another salt wind, which reached Middlesex, and destroyed most of the pease that had previously survived a very severe degree of cold.

The effects now detailed are ascribed by Mr. S., from a hint also thrown out by Sir Joseph Banks, to winds blowing directly from the sea, and loaded with the spray of salt water, which is deposited on plants and other objects that occur in its progress. No doubt can be entertained that the cause here suggested may have produced some of those effects: but it does not seem probable that the whole are to be ascribed to its operation. It is natural on this hypothesis to suppose that the plants nearest to the sea would have suffered most: but this does not appear to have been the case; nor is it ascertained that the same effects follow every wind which blows from the sea with an equal degree of violence. We suspect that electricity may have a considerable share in some of the phænomena here investigated. We have seen one part of a tree, sometimes a single branch, and sometimes only the leaves of a branch, destroyed, seemingly in the way described by the author; and we have also observed a few feet of a hawthorn hedge blasted or withered

for the season, and sometimes entirely destroyed. Now, if such had been the effect of a wind loaded with salt spray from the sea, it is perfectly obvious that the whole must have been equally injured. Mr. Salisbury himself confirms this observation, in the remark which he has made with regard to the Scotch fir on Hounslow Heath, where some of the clumps wholly escaped; although, he adds, 'no obvious reason occurs from their situation, why they should not all have suffered alike.' The furze too, he has noticed in some places, was destroyed on that side which was next to the sea; yet on the coasts of Devonshire and Cornwall, where it is constantly exposed to such winds, it escaped uninjured. More extended observation is yet wanting, to give any degree of precision to this curious investigation.

Description of seven new Species of Plants from New Holland. *By* Edward Rudge, *Esq.*—Of the new species of plants here described, we shall give only the names, under the class and order of each, referring the botanical reader to the paper itself for their description:

Pentandria Monogynia.	*Styphelia Amplexicaulis.*
——— ———.	*Cyathodes Laurina.*
Octandria Monogynia.	*Tetratheca Glandulosa.*
——— ———.	——— — *Ericæfolia.*
——— ———.	*Beckea Linifolia.*
——— ———.	——— *Diosmifolia.*
Icosandria Monogynia.	*Leptospermum Brevifolium.*

The descriptions are accompanied by engravings of each of the species, and most of the figures are of the natural size of the plant.

Observations on the Genera of Trollius, Eranthis, Helleborus, Coptis, and Isopyrum. *By* R. A. Salisbury, *Esq.*—The nature of the Nectarium, and the degree of importance assigned to it by different botanical writers, as a character in determining the genera of plants, are considered in the preliminary observations in this paper; and the characters of the plants enumerated in the title are afterward given. Of these, two of the genera are new, namely, *Eranthis*, including one species, *Hyemalis*, the *Helleborus Hyemalis* Lin. or winter aconite; and *Coptis*, which includes two species, *Trifolia*, *Helleborus Trifolius* Lin.:—also, *Aspleniifolia*, discovered by Mr. Menzies on the western coasts of North America.

The Characters of several Genera in the natural Order of Coniferæ: with Remarks on their Stigmata and Cotyledons. *By* the same.—It is stated that the investigation of some peculiarities of structure in the parts of fructification of some species of the

pine

pine tribe, which had hitherto been entirely overlooked, or very imperfectly described by former writers on botanical physiology, led the author of this paper to the discovery of more precise characters for distinguishing several of the genera belonging to the natural order of *Coniferæ*. The characters of these genera, as well as of those of the species which they include, are here fully detailed: but for the descriptions we must refer to the paper.

Description of a new Species of Macropus from New Holland: by Aylmer Bourke Lambert, *Esq.*—The discriminative characters, which have induced Mr. L. to consider this as a distinct species of Kangaroo from the *Macropus Major* of Shaw, are its colour, which is a beautiful silver grey; its smaller size; and its handsomer shape. The following are the specific descriptions of both:

1. *Macropus Major, Subfuscus Auriculis subacuminatis.*
2. ——— *Elegans, Argenteus Auriculis subobtusis.*

The latter is known to the settlers in New Holland by the name of *silver* or *brush Kangaroo*; and besides the differences in its external characters already noted, this new species exhibits a peculiarity in its habits, by which it is also distinguished from the common kangaroo. The latter is gregarious, and is usually found in herds of forty or fifty individuals: but the present species is a solitary animal, and is but rarely discovered. The striking difference beween them in point of size will appear from the comparative measurement of some of the parts of the two species:

	Common Kangaroo.	Silver Kangaroo.
Length from the tip of the nose to the end of the tail;	96 inches.	62 inches.
Length of the tail,	37	26
——— of the fore leg,	24	12½
——— of the hind leg,	43	24

The description is accompanied by an engraving, the drawing of which was taken from a living specimen, brought from New South Wales, and exhibited at Exeter 'Change.

Experiments upon a Substance called Dapèche from South America: by William Allen, *Esq.*—This substance, which was sent to Sir Joseph Banks from South America, by the celebrated Humboldt, was found two or three feet under the surface; in its appearance it resembles a dried fungus, being of a spongy texture, and internally it is of a whitish colour. Although very different in its external character from caoutchouc, or Indian rubber, yet the result of experiment has led Mr. Allen to consider it as a modification of that substance. Caoutchouc

is

is obtained from the milky juice of *Hevea* (here mis-spelled *Hawea*) *Caouthouc*, and *Iatropha Elastica*. This juice, when exposed to the air of the atmosphere, separates into two parts, viz. an aqueous fluid, and the concrete substance called elastic gum, or caoutchouc. Mr. A. supposes that the specimen of *dapèche* which he examined was produced by successive depositions of milky juice; and that the natural chemical changes which it has undergone, from its being excluded from the atmospheric air, have followed in a different order, or to a more limited extent than if it had been exposed to the free action of that fluid. *Dapèche* burns freely when held to the candle: it removes black lead marks; and it exhibits signs of electricity, by causing dry paper rubbed with it to attract pith balls. The results of parallel experiments, which Mr. Allen very judiciously instituted, on equal quantities of caoutchouc and *dapèche*, with different acids, presented a striking similarity: but we shall only state the comparative results obtained by distillation to dryness, in glass retorts:

Caoutchouc, 100 parts.	
A brown empyreumatic oil, containing no trace of acid;	92
14 cubic inches of gas (probably carburetted hydrogen),	2
Carbonaceous residuum, - -	6
	100

Dapèche, 100 parts.	
A brown empyreumatic oil; - -	80
Water slightly acid; - - -	2
Carburetted hydrogen; - - -	2
Carbonaceous residuum; - -	16
	100

It appears that the chief difference in the results consists in the *dapèche* yielding two parts of water slightly acid: whence we may conclude that the *dapèche* has undergone other changes besides those to which caoutchouc is subjected; unless it be supposed, which indeed is not improbable, that the difference has arisen from some unperceived anomaly in the progress of the experiment.

Account of a new British Species of Caltha: by Thomas Furly Forster, *Esq.*—This new species of Caltha is a native of Scotland; and Mr. Forster received it from Mr. James Dickson, who suspected from its appearance that it would prove a new species.

species. It has now been cultivated by Mr. Forster for several years, and still retains all its distinctive characters, which intitle it to a separate place among the species of Caltha hitherto known. It seems to approach most nearly to *C. Palustris*: but its creeping stalk, which shoots forth roots at the joints; its sharply crenated triangular leaves; and its smaller, narrower, wedge-shaped, and patent petals; afford obvious characteristic marks to constitute a different species. Mr. F. has given to it the name *Radicans*, with these specific characters: *C. Caule repente foliis cordato triangularibus acuté crenatis.*

An engraving of the new species is added.

Description of a new Genus in the natural Order of Rubiaceæ, called Rudgea. *By* R. A. Salisbury, *Esq.*—Of this new genus of plants, the name has been given to Mr. Rudge, whose assiduous and successful labours in the cultivation of botanical science justly intitled him to this honorary mark of distinction. Two species only, viz. *Lanceæfolia*, and *Ovalifolia*, both natives of Guiana, where they were discovered by Mr. Martin, are yet known. The genus will be arranged in the Linnéan system under *Pentandria Monogynia*, after Psychotriam.——The description is illustrated by figures of both species.

A new Arrangement of the Plants of the Monandrian Class, usually called Scitamineæ. *By* William Roscoe, *Esq.*—Our readers may not at first suspect that the author of this elaborate paper is the learned biographer of Lorenzo de' Medici: but we are not a little gratified to find that, among various graver pursuits, he has been able to direct his attention to the present investigation, by which he has performed an essential service to botanical science. The establishment of a botanic garden at Liverpool a few years ago, on a splendid and liberal plan, by the munificent and enlightened inhabitants of that place, has probably given facilities to his studies, and correctness to his views, by the opportunity which it afforded of examining living plants, which he might not otherwise have enjoyed. As the present article has already exceeded our usual limits, we are thus precluded, with considerable regret, from entering into a detail of the new arrangement here proposed; and as a very short notice would be unsatisfactory, we refer botanical readers to the memoir at large.

This volume concludes with two extracts from the Minute Book of the society; the first announcing an account, with a coloured drawing, of a fish, the *Centriscus Scolopax*, which was driven on shore on the coast of Cornwall, presented to the society by Mr. Rashleigh; and a letter from the President, containing remarks on some British plants, chiefly connected with their *habitats*.

ART. V. *A History of the College of Arms*, and the Lives of all the Kings, Heralds, and Pursuivants, from the Reign of Richard III., Founder of the College, until the present Time. With a Preliminary Dissertation relative to the different Orders in England, particularly the Gentry, since the Norman Conquest. Taken from Records, Manuscripts, and other the most indisputable Authorities. By the Rev. Mark Noble, F.A.S. of L. and E., Rector of Barming in Kent. 4to. pp. 449. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Egerton, &c.

"TIME and chance happen to all men," said the old Sage; to which we may add, "and to all things."—Chance has long, very long, kept our attention from this work: but time has at last brought it before us, and we feel ourselves required to bring it before our readers: for it may truly be said that the scenes of antient pomp and splendour, which are here presented to us, do not merely gratify curiosity, but also elucidate history by making us acquainted with the spirit and manners of past times. The persons who figure in the narrative before us, though in our day they have dwindled into pageants, and mere ornaments of occasional processions, were formerly the most sacred and inseparable attendants on monarchs, the bearers of messages between crowned heads in war and in peace, often enjoying the confidence of their sovereigns, and living on terms of familiarity with people of the highest rank.

In a neat and elaborate preliminary dissertation, Mr. Noble specifies the various changes in the great families of England, since the Norman conquest. Family history, it is remarked by him, is scarcely ever to be traced beyond the eleventh century.

'Under the reigns of Henry II. and Richard I. the influx of continental families must have been great. Hither came cadets from the houses of the noblesse, not only in Normandy, but Anjoy, Maine, Tourain, Poitou, and Acquitaine, or as it is now more generally called, Guienne, including all the west part of France, except Bretagne and Gascogne. To distinguish the Francic settlers in England at this period, and ascertain of what particular province belonging to these great monarchs they were natives, Scarron's rule is sufficient. The Norman names, he says, chiefly end in *ville*; those of Anjoy, in *lere*; those of Guienne, especially near the river Garonne, in *ac*, as those in Picardy do in *cour*; and though Picardy was not part of our transmarine dominions, yet many followed the Norman and Anjevin monarchs into England, where they settled.'

In referring to the reign of Edward III., he observes;

'Surnames, which had been gradually adopted by the gentry, in imitation of the nobility, now descended to the lower orders, and in this

this reign had become almost general. Government encouraged the system, because the having only baptismal names was very inconvenient, from the difficulty of identifying persons, especially in towns, or other populous places. It would have been the height of presumption in the vassal to have taken a name like that of his master, of whom he held his land; and even those who lived in towns, and had enriched themselves by trade, would not venture upon what would have been attended with dangerous consequences to themselves, and have gained them the just scorn and derision of all; they therefore generally took theirs from those trades to which they owed their maintenance. The names, Emperor, King, Duke, Earl, Baron, Bishop, Abbot, Priest, Deacon, Esquire, and Gentleman, adopted to distinguish families, Camden thinks, were borrowed from the first user of them having acted, or personated such characters, in the ancient Christmas games, especially the secular names. Some who took clerical names, might have been occasioned by their parents, when widowers, having gone into the church, and having gained a particular office in it, giving that as a surname to their children, in remembrance of the circumstance; or, as I am inclined to think, such who took these names held under such who bore them. But as the names of trades, or of offices, could not suit all, every thing else that even fancy could dictate were adopted for surnames, as the names of quadrupeds, birds, fishes, insects, trees, shrubs, flowers, rivers, colors, metals, minerals, and whatever else presented themselves, as hedge, wall, house, wood, highway, implements of household furniture or agriculture, properties of body or mind, baptismal name of the father, whether British, Saxon, Danish, or Norman, or its abbreviation, often with the word *son* added to it. Sometimes that of their mother; even cant, or nicknames. Some, in remembrance of their origin, took the names of French, Scot, Welch, Briton, Pichard, &c. generally with the article *la,* if of Continental descent. Warlike instruments, parts of dress, divisions of time, divisions of money, and almost every thing else that could be adopted; nay even what seemed to mark their posterity with disgrace, such as Gallows, Bad, and others too indelicate and gross to mention.'

It is stated that

'Henry VI. sent persons through many of the counties of England to collect the names of the gentry in each: these lists of names have reached our time. It is observable, that many are mentioned in them, who had stooped to the meanest trades, yet were still accounted gentry. We must suppose that they were the offspring of younger branches, whose fortunes were unequal to support them in a higher situation: it is evident that at this time trade, though it might depress, yet it did not destroy gentility. We find that now were two other orders of men, who were ranked between the gentlemen, and the artizan or labourer; the franklins, or free men, who possessed sufficient land to maintain themselves without labour, and the yeomen, a word of German derivation, signifying commoners, who resided upon, and occupied their own land, by using which they were enabled to live without working for others. These two orders of free-

holders

holders became a very respectable class of men, and formed at home, and in the field, an industrious, frugal, hardy body. The gentleman had arms; these had no such distinction.'

In the conceptions of a true heraldist, prescription is universally inviolable; rank and merit mean the same thing, and antiquity and virtue are not to be distinguished. According to this delineation of the character, Mr. Noble is on the whole no bad heraldist. In the spirit of the science, speaking of the Revolution, he observes that

'In general, all those who had been the defenders of monarchy during the civil war, and attached to the person or government of the two late sovereigns, were treated with neglect, if not suspicion; and all who had been the avowed friends of those principles which had deprived Charles I. of life, were respected, honoured, trusted.'

We would ask Mr. Noble whether the same families, who were countenanced at the Revolution, were not those who were the authors of the Restoration; and we submit to him that those who resist royal encroachments are the most efficient and consistent friends of a limited and qualified monarchy. Is Mr. Noble prepared to deny that to the resistance against Charles I. we owe all those blessings, of which he has given so glowing a description at the close of his dissertation, and which he represents as distinguishing the present reign? In this flattering picture, we know of no feature which the reality does not warrant: but we have to remark that two important circumstances are kept out of sight, viz. the grievous pressure of our enormous expenditure, and the inconceivable aggrandisement of our enemy,—which, we may at this moment hope, is now likely to be checked. The author, having praised other monarchs for their slowness in conferring honours, represents the creations in the present reign as being required, in order to preserve the due weight of the second order in the scale of the constitution.

We have already hinted at the high estimation in which the subjects of this volume were regarded in the earlier periods of our history; and Mr. Noble gives this sketch of their functions:

'The person of the officer at arms was inviolate, being the messenger of peace and war. He summoned besieged places to surrender, and in capitulations preceded the vanquished governor, to secure him against every violence. He published victories, numbered the slain, and notified the success of foreign courts. He was essential at coronations, royal marriages, baptisms, and funerals, at the interviews of sovereigns and princes, displaying banners in the field, public banquets, and processions, during the royal progresses, and at the annual festivals of the church. He assisted at justs, tilts, tournaments, and combats, and in every thing else in which the English monarchs were personally

personally concerned, upon whom he constantly attended, whether he was in the court or in the camp, in Britain or upon the Continent. Assisting at enthronization of prelates, they were amply rewarded. He proclaimed the titles of the royal visitants, princes and nobility, illustrious ladies, great officers of state, who dined in the courts of the sovereign, which at stated times all such were accustomed to do; each of whom, according to his rank and office, gave a fee or reward; but the quantity was optional, being regulated chiefly by the wealth or liberality of the giver. These several sums were registered, as a guide and incitement to others. To him belonged the ordering of every thing relative to the genealogies and armorial bearings of the nobility and gentry, being impowered to oblige all to produce every thing necessary for their making the most proper decision in all doubtful cases. They presided at, and marshalled the solemn and magnificent funerals, which were so general in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and to such an extreme, that they materially injured the families whose honours they were supposed to promote. The exact form of these obsequies were prescribed in the reign of Edward IV. Nobleman's funerals were attended by their own herald, in a tabard of his arms reversed. The royal officers at arms also were there, not in tabards bearing the Sovereign's, but the deceased's arms. The ceremonial was so long, so pompous, that there was ample employment for the many of the heraldic body who assisted. So preposterously fond of funeral rites were our ancestors, that the obsequies of princes were observed by such sovereigns as were in alliance with them, and in the same state as if the royal corpse had been conveyed from one christian kingdom to another. Individuals had their obsequies kept in various places, where they had particular connections from residence.'

Mr.N. shews that the emoluments of the situations of Heralds were also considerable. According to a table of fees settled by Henry IV., they received one hundred pounds at a king's coronation, and one hundred marks at that of a queen, besides other perquisites: they had fees on displaying the royal banner in the field, at a royal marriage, on great festivals, liberal travelling expences when sent on foreign missions, and daily pay while they attended the armies, besides regular salaries: they had perquisites on all occasions of public ceremonial, and at the funerals of princes, nobility, or gentry. Very costly gifts and large sums were also presented to them by the foreign princes to whom they were sent on friendly errands. On one occasion, the penurious Louis XI. gave Garter King of Arms three hundred crowns, for his good offices towards inducing his master Edward IV. to conclude a peace; with the promise of a thousand more if he succeeded. The author moreover proves the consideration in which they were held, from the precedence which they enjoyed in court-processions, and the splendor of the robes and insignia of their offices; and he adds,

'Anciently

'Anciently the kings (at arms) put neither their baptismal nor surname, but only that of their office, in their grants or public instruments, and like sovereigns used the plural *we*, concluding their patents, "we the said—king at arms, to these present letters have put our seal of arms and sign manual." In Edward IV.'s reign the names, as well as office, are mentioned, and the singular was adopted: in that of Henry VIII. they substituted, instead of the above conclusion. "my seal of office, and the seal of my arms." It is owing to the omission of the christian and family name, that we have so defective an account of the ancient kings at arms and their succession: then their seal of arms was thought so sufficiently indicative of the person as to fully identify him.

'Their consequence was great in the court, in the camp, and still more than either, in the council; as negotiators they had great influence; they were conspicuous for judgment, experience, learning, and elegance; they gained honour wherever they were employed. Foreign potentates lavished their bounty upon them: their own sovereign rewarded their skill and fidelity with ample manors and estates. Brugge, Garter, did not think it presumption to invite, and he had wealth sufficient to magnificently entertain, the emperor Sigismund, at his seat in Kentish-town: an honour almost as great as a subject could receive, or a monarch pay.'

Of the incorporation of these officers, we have here this statement:

'As Charles VI., in the year 1406, had incorporated the heralds in France, Richard III., following his example, gave his officers of arms a charter of incorporation, by the name of the College of Heralds, and granted them many privileges, making them free from subsidies and tolls, with exemption from all troublesome offices. His Majesty also, by his letters patent, dated at Westminster, March 2, 1483-4, granted to John Writh, *alias* Garter, principal king of Englishmen, a large mansion, called Cole-Herbert, standing in the parish of All Saints the Little, in the city of London, to him and his successors for ever. This house had long been the residence of the princes of the blood, the nobility, and the highest gentry. It was conveyed in these words: "one messuage, with the appurtenances, in London, in the parish of All Saints, called Pulteney's Inn, or Cold Harbore, to the use of twelve the most principal and approved of them, the heralds for the time being, for ever, without compte or any other thing thereof, to us or to our heirs, to be given or paid." A chaplain was appointed, with an annual stipend of twenty pounds, who was directed to pray for the good estate of King Richard, Ann his Queen, and Edward their son, during their lives, and for their souls after death.'

We are next furnished with clear and succinct accounts of the titles and functions of the several officers who constituted the body, including Garter, the principal king at arms; the provincial kings at arms, of which two only, Clarenceux and Norroy, have come down to our times; of the several heralds,

heralds, as Windsor, Chester, &c. and of the pursuivants, Rouge-Croix, Blue-Mantle, &c. The volume is then occupied in giving a history of the body-corporate in each reign, of the changes which it underwent, and the incidents which principally affected it; with brief memoirs of each person who filled the several offices which the college included.

Queen Mary, by charter dated July 18, 1559, made a grant to the heralds of Derby House,

'To "enable them to assemble together, and consult, and agree amongst themselves, for the good of their faculty, and that the records and rolls might be more safely and conveniently deposited."

'From this time the heralds have been more fixed, and their affairs more uniform, and better conducted, than when they were scattered. This house was destroyed in the great fire in London, in the reign of Charles II. It was rebuilt of brick, in a very handsome manner, after the design of Sir Christopher Wren, and is still the residence of their officers at arms, and the depository of their valuable collections, which are as useful as curious. Here, too, they hold, every first Thursday in each month, their meetings, called chapters, where all affairs are determined by a majority of voices of the kings and heralds, each of the former having two voices: they meet oftener if there is a necessity. One of the heralds, and one pursuivant attend now daily in the public office, by a monthly rotation. There are belonging to the College, a register, a treasurer, and a messenger, with two watermen having badges.

'Formerly some of the members always attended in the royal residence; now their duty is limited to these particular times, New Year's-day, Christmas-day, Easter-day, Whit-sunday, Saint George's-day, April twenty-third, these are ordinary days: the extraordinary ones are, when his Majesty goes to parliament, coronations, royal baptisms, marriages, funerals, installations, public trials of peers, or others, before the House of Lords, public funerals given by the state to subjects as great and illustrious characters, grand ceremonials decreed by the Sovereign, reception of foreign potentates, and whatever, in a peculiar manner, calls the British Court to display itself.

'Each of the kings at arms have an official seal; bespeaking their respective places. The College, as a body-corporate, have their common seal, which, in honour of the Writhes, who presided when the College was founded, or if it is more proper, when they first received their charter from Richard, bears the arms of that family.'

Mr. Noble's feelings and views are generally in the spirit of his obsequious science: but, when he reaches the unhappy epoch of Charles I., he seems for a moment to forget his character, and to rise to freedom and philosophy. Charles, he remarks, was desirous of enlarging the commerce of his dominions, but he was averse to any distinction whatever being enjoyed by

those who engaged in its pursuits; 'not considering,' as is here justly observed, 'that the great stimulus to industry is to acquire consequence in the state, and be enabled to display the effects of their prudence, industry, and knowlege. These are encouragements to others to pursue their steps.' Mr. N. then relates that a commission was granted to Clarenceux and Norroy Kings at Arms to traverse the provinces, and examine into the armorial bearings, honorary devices, or ceremonial ornaments adopted by the people, visiting all sins against heraldic laws, with various other powers: on which inquisitorial proceedings, Mr. Noble makes just and pertinent remarks. This triumph of native good sense over early or professional prejudices, however, is of short duration; and the connection of the heraldic body with the events of the time afford ample opportunities to the author to assert those extreme doctrines, which seemed for a moment to have lost their sway in his mind. Yet we are not displeased to see him actuated in an allowable degree by the spirit of his subject; for had the vein of philosophy, to which we have alluded in the above instance, been more predominant in the learned author, he probably would have disdained the toil to which we owe this curious volume; which the philosopher may prize not less than the degenerate descendant of a truly noble stock, who prefers this to every other science because he owes to it all the consideration which he enjoys.

Among the biographical notices here offered to us, a number of particulars occur respecting persons of note which will amuse the general reader and instruct the historian. It is not in our power to attend to many of them: but we cannot refrain from quoting those which relate to our old friend the celebrated Francis Grose, author of the Antiquities of England and Wales; and who is here introduced from a circumstance perhaps not generally known, viz. that of having formerly been *Richmond Herald:*

'Francis Grose, Esq. F.A.S. was son of Francis Grose, Esq. a native of Switzerland, who, settling in England, became so eminent a jeweller, that he was employed in fitting up the crown for the coronation of George II. Retiring from business, he resided at Richmond, and became a justice of peace for the county of Surrey. Dying in December, 1769, his prints and shells were disposed of in the following year. By Ann, daughter of Thomas Bennett of Kingston, in Oxfordshire, he had the herald and several other sons; they were, Mr John Grose, F.A.S, author of "Ethics." John-Henry Grose, Esq who wrote the Voyage to the East-Indies, printed in 1772, in two volumes, father of Daniel Grose, Esq. F.A.S. captain of the royal regiment of artillery. Edward Grose, Esq. a merchant in Threadneedle Street; and Sir Nash Grose, justice of

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the King's Bench. Francis Grose, Esq. Richmond, the eldest son, born at Greenford, in Middlesex, having a taste for heraldry and antiquities, his father procured him a place in the College of Arms. At his death he left him a fortune, which, with œconomy, was sufficient to have supplied all reasonable demands; but eccentric, easy, a lover and promoter of pleasantry, he never reflected about contingencies. Resigning his tabard in 1763, he became adjutant and paymaster of the Hampshire militia; here he found others equally disposed to frolic and mirth; his moments p ssed pleasantly: the only books of account he kept, as he used to own, were his right and left hand pockets; into the one he put what he received; from the other he paid: the designing, and the careless, regarded him as their dupe, and he soon felt the effects of his easy credulity. He found resources in his excellent classical education, and his fine taste for drawing; this gave rise to his projecting those elegant, splendid, and curious volumes which adorn our best libraries. His works are, Antiquities of England and Wales, in four volumes; the same of Guernsey and Jersey, in two volumes; of Scotland, in two volumes. The works he published upon this interesting subject are faithful sketches of Druidical remains, and of the ruinated castles and monasteries in the British Isles. He was often assisted by his friends, both in drawing, and oftener in the historical part, but never without the most grateful acknowledgements. Mr. Grose had been for some time a Fellow of the Societies of Antiquaries of London and Perth; the former in March 31, 1757. He also had risen in his profession to be a captain in the Surrey militia; and as he had published his volumes of the Antiquities of Guernsey and Jersey in 1787, he applied himself to what related to his military situation. In 1786, 1788, he printed his "Military Antiquities respecting a History of the English Army, from the Conquest to the present Time," in two volumes, 4to. illustrated with great variety of plates; and, like the former works, published in numbers. As a kind of prelude to these volumes he published "A Treatise on ancient Armour and Weapons, illustrated by plates taken from the original armour in the Tower of London, and other arsenals, museums, and cabinets, in 1785, 4to." To which he gave a Supplement in 1789, 4to. The plates in both were etched by Mr. John Hamilton, vice-president of the Society of Artists of Great Britain, "executed in a free painter-like manner." In 1785 he published "A classical Dictionary of the vulgar Tongue," which by no means added to his reputation, and "A Guide to Health, Beauty, Honour, and Riches; being a collection of humorous advertisements, pointing out means to obtain those blessings," with a suitable introductory preface. In 1786, "The History of Dover Castle, by the Rev. William Darrel, chaplain to Queen Elizabeth. The Latin MS. from which this was printed, was transcribed from the original by William Oldys, Esq. Norroy." It is elegantly printed in quarto and octavo, the same size as the large and small editions of the Antiquities of England and Wales, with ten beautiful views finely engraved, from drawings taken by himself on the spot. In 1788, "A provincial Glossary, with a Collection of local Proverbs, and popular Superstitions." 8vo. In the same year appeared without his name, but

which was generally ascribed to him, "Rules for Drawing Caricatures, the subject illustrated with four copper Plates, with an Essay on comic Painting" In 1789 he began his Scottish tour: the result of it appeared first in 1790. Before the whole was completed he went to Ireland, which was to be viewed as the sister kingdoms, and its antiquities, comprized in forty numbers, in the same sizes as his other works of that kind, were to be given; but, when only in the fifty-second year of his age, he was carried off by an apoplectic stroke, May 12, 1791, in the house of Mr. Hone, in Dublin*. Since his death a small 8vo. volume of miscellaneous subjects were published, by the late Mr. John Williamson, from which I have given the lives of Warburton, Somerset, and Oldys, Norroy. It is wonderful that he was able to publish so much, and that generally so excellent. Besides these extensive works he drew the new plates in Mr. Martin's History of Thetford, 1779. Mr. William Flackton, bookseller at Canterbury, and Miss Gosling of that city, have many of his drawings taken whilst he resided there, which he did for some years, having married a lady of that place. Cromwell, the vicar-general, the furious fanatical reformer Knox, and Oliver Cromwell, the Protector, were founders of his celebrity, by destroying the ecclesiastical and military structures of our ancestors; but the hand of time had prepared them for Grose's pencil, by fracturing the walls, and rearing upon and around them the ivy, the moss, and the shrub. There is an original miniature portrait of him, drawn from the life, by Dr. Bruce, then surgeon of a regiment of foot, in the possession of Mr. Flackton, who long knew and highly esteemed him; it represents him sitting in a chair, in his military uniform, and was esteemed, when taken, twenty-seven years before his death, a very striking likeness. There is a whole length portrait of him by Dance, engraved by Bartolozzi, which is prefixed to the Supplement to his English Antiquities, vol. 1. There are others; an excellent one in the character of a jolly monk, with friends Hone and Forrest; another, equally good, by a well known gentleman artist, "cordially inscribed to those members of the Antiquarian Society who adjourn to the Somerset, by one of their devoted brethren," with the lamp, and "the following lines under it;" this being handed about gave Mr. Grose much displeasure:

'Now ****, like bright Phœbus, is sunk into rest,
Society droops for the loss of his jest;
Antiquarian debates, unoccasion'd with mirth,
To genius and learning will never give birth.
Then wake, brother-member, our friend from his sleep,
Lest Apollo should frown, and Bacchus should weep.'

'Another, styled "The English Antiquary," is amongst the caricature portraits of Mr. Ray, of Edinburgh. That in "The Lounger's Miscellany" was not designed for, though it well represents, him. There is another which does not do justice to the subject it professes to represent. None more laughed at his figure

'* Grose's Antiquities of England, Wales, and Scotland, uniformly printed, sells for 31l. 10s.'

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than himself, and it being unique, could not be mistaken; he often signed not his names to his letter, but sketched his person. How inimitable has that sweet bard, the unfortunate Burns, portrayed the man, when larding the lean earth in his perambulations in that kingdom.

'Grose, to a stranger, might have been supposed not a surname, but one selected as significant of his figure; which was more of the form of Sancho Pança than Falstaff; he partook greatly of the properties of both. He was as low, squat, and rotund as the former, and not less a sloven; equalled him too in his love of sleep, and nearly so in his proverbs. In his wit he was a Falstaff. He was the butt for other men to shoot at, but it always rebounded with a double force. He could eat with Sancho, and drink with the Knight. In simplicity, probity, and a compassionate heart, he was wholly of the Pança breed; his jocularity could have pleased a prince. His learning, sense, science, and honour, might have secured him the favour, not the rejection, of the all-accomplished conqueror of France.—My personal knowledge of the original enables me to vouch for the justness of the character I have drawn. In the "St. James's Evening" was proposed as an epitaph for him, the following appropriate words:

"Here lies FRANCIS GROSE.
On Thursday, May 12 1791,
Death put an end to his
Views and prospects."

'Mr. Grose, I believe, chiefly resided at Wandsworth, in Surrey: he married the beautiful Catherine, daughter of Mr. Jordan, of Canterbury, by whom he had two sons and five daughters; 1. Francis Grose, of Croydon-Crook in Surrey, Esq. a colonel in the army, governor of New South Wales; 2. Onslow Grose, Esq. captain of the pioneer corps on the Madras establishment, who died very lately in India; 3. Catherine-Ann-Maria, born in the parish of All Saints, in Canterbury, August 19, 1752; 4. Ann-Elizabeth; 5. Mary-Caroline; and 6. Phœbe. One of these daughters married to Anketel Singleton, Esq. lieutenant-governor of Landguard-Fort, in Essex.'

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We regret that our boundaries will not permit us to do more ample justice to this interesting production; which fills up an important chasm in our literature, and which, though by no means correctly written, will add to the reputation which Mr. Noble has earned by former labours of a similar stamp. If heraldry be a narrow pursuit, it should not be forgotten that it embraces the mechanism of one of the most singular institutions which the world ever witnessed, and which has exercised an incredible influence on the condition of human life and on manners in modern times. If its professors, also, be not usually the most liberal members of the republic of letters, it is not to be disputed that history is greatly indebted to them: nor ought a body to be lightly treated,

which has been illustrated by a Camden, an Ashmole, and a Dugdale.

The handsome tribute which the present author pays to his friend the late Mr. Brooke, Somerset Herald, is equally creditable to the feelings of the writer, and appropriate to its justly lamented subject.

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but see p. 50.-53.

ART. VI. Mr. Barrow's *Account of the Public Life, &c. of the Earl of* Macartney.

[*Art. concluded from p.* 344. *of our last Number.*]

ON Lord Macartney's arrival at Grenada, the principal seat of his government, he found that island 'distracted by party-feuds;' of which his biographer commences his account by observing, that 'there was the Scotch party and the French party, the former of whom was inveterate against the latter because they were papists, and these bore no less hatred to the others because they were considered as intruders.' We apprehend that when he represents their animosities as arising from religious antipathy, he is not accurate in his statement: because, though they might at that time have assumed such an appearance, they really originated in a well-founded discontent on the part of the protestants, at seeing the French catholic inhabitants, almost immediately after they had been bearing arms against them, admitted without the sanction of Parliament, and in the very teeth of some laws of the realm, to an equal participation and enjoyment of all civil rights and offices with themselves. When Lord Hillsborough was secretary of state, we have understood that an instruction was sent by him to the present General Melville, the first British Governor of those islands, directing him to receive a certain number of the catholics there into the council and houses of assembly, on the bench, into the magistracy, and as officers of militia, &c. As he was not in Grenada when the order reached that island, it was delivered to Ulysses Fitzmorris, the Lieutenant-Governor, who was disposed to act on it; and that very instruction must be considered as having laid the foundation of all the dissensions which afterward arose.

The protestant planters and settlers, finding the papists highly favoured at the expence of what they conceived to be by law the exclusive rights of Protestants, did every thing on their part to thwart the ministry which had so countenanced the catholics; and after having taken proper advice on the subject, they were convinced that they were not obliged to pay those duties which were allotted to the kings of France prior to our conquest

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of those islands, and that the king of Great Britain could not tax them by his own authority. They therefore entered into an agreement to resist the payment of those imposts, which gave rise to the famous case of Campbell *versus* Hall, three times elaborately argued before Lord Mansfield at Westminster, and which was at last decided against the right of the crown. The decision hinged on the date of Governor Melville's commission, empowering and instructing him to convene a house of assembly in Grenada as soon as he conveniently could; by which, though the assembly was not called for a considerable time afterward, the judges were unanimously of opinion that the king had from the date of that paper relinquished all right of taxing Grenada by his own authority, and that thenceforwards it could only be taxed by the Parliament of Great Britain, or by its own colonial legislature. We know that Governor Melville, being aware that the instruction was illegal, contrived to prevent it from being carried into effect while he continued in his government, and repeatedly applied for leave to return home.

Much credit is certainly due to Lord Macartney for strenuously exerting himself to quiet these dissensions; and it is greatly to be wished that the governors of all our colonies would follow his example in this respect. The misfortune however is, that the persons employed in such situations are in general but little acquainted with the constitution even of the mother-country, and still less with those of the colonies which they are sent to govern; and finding on their arrival that it is not safe to depend on their own judgment, they generally fall into the hands of some counsellor who has party views to serve. Mr. Barrow relates, also, that 'by address and management, but perhaps more by the confidence his conduct had inspired, Lord Macartney contrived, *for the first time*, to establish a respectable militia in the island of Grenada, composed of those very parties, who previous to his arrival had been endeavouring to tear each other in pieces.' We are surprized that he should hazard such an assertion. The very instruction already mentioned, sent to the governor soon after the reduction of the island, directing him to admit a certain number of French catholics as officers in the militia, shews that such an establishment existed long before Lord M. went thither; and its militia was in fact regulated and organized by the intelligent officer above mentioned.

When the island of Grenada was attacked by the French, the garrison of St. George (its capital) consisted of 101 regulars of the 48th regiment, 84 only of whom were fit for duty, 24 artillery

men, 66 volunteers, and 370 militia men; while the French fleet had safely landed thirteen hundred men for the attack:

'As the fort (says Mr. Barrow) was utterly incapable of holding out resistance for any length of time, Lord Macartney, at the head of his small force, thought it most prudent to retire to the Hospital-hill, as being the strongest ground, commanding at once the town, the fort, and the harbour. On this spot he determined to make his stand, and to maintain his post to the last extremity. About two in the morning a party of the enemy attempted to penetrate his left along the river, but they were soon repulsed, thrown into disorder, and lost several men.'

Now to penetrate the left wing of a body of troops in any position is to break through it: but how could the enemy be said to attempt to break through Lord Macartney's left along the river, unless part of it was actually *in* the river, or on the opposite bank? Lord M. himself, in his official letter to Lord George Germaine, tells him that an attempt was made by a party of the enemy to penetrate *on* his left along the river, which was the same thing as saying that they attempted to turn his left along the river, and therefore is easily understood.—Much complaint is made against the baseness of Count d'Estaing, in suffering his men, after they had stormed the Hospital-hill, to give themselves up to plunder; without recollecting that, by the custom of warfare, plundering is the natural consequence of storming. The Count no doubt regarded his Lordship's shew of resistance as a momentary parade, and was exasperated at seeing numbers of men killed and wounded on both sides, without any good purpose whatsoever being answered by the sacrifice. This is the light in which, we are persuaded, military men of intelligence and reflection will view the transaction: for it is as much the duty of a commander to avoid exposing his troops to destruction, when it is reduced to a certainty that no beneficial consequences can ensue, as it is manfully to continue the contest while the smallest probability of success remains. Lord Macartney had no expectation of any succour; and even if Admiral Byron could have arrived at Grenada before it was reduced, he could not have extricated the Governor from his situation without a sufficient army to defeat that which had attacked him; since troops once landed in force on so small a spot, altogether unfit for the chicanery of defensive warfare, must infallibly succeed in spite of any marine.

Some inconsistencies occur in Mr. Barrow's narrative of this business. Among others, he says that 'Lord Macartney had

had determined in his own mind *never* to surrender himself a prisoner to the French, even if reduced to the *last* extremity; and that it was not likely therefore that, independent of his personal feelings, he would adopt a conduct so dishonourable as to give up a valuable colony unconditionally.' Yet we are afterward told that he both surrendered himself a prisoner and delivered up the island without making any terms.

The fourth situation, in which Mr. Barrow introduces his patron to the attention of the public, is the government of Madras; to which it is evident that he was appointed in a great measure through the influence of the ministry, though Mr. B. ascribes the nomination of his lordship entirely to the high opinion which the Directors of the East India Company generally entertained of his ability and integrity. After the capture of Grenada, he had been sent by Count D'Estaing as a prisoner to France, but was soon released; and on his return to England he was employed on a secret mission to Ireland.—The succeeding part of Mr Barrow's performance is more a narrative of Hyder Ali's invasion and devastation of the Carnatic, and of the sea-engagements between M. Suffrein and Sir Edward Hughes, than a biographical account of Lord Macartney in his high station; and we are sorry to observe, that we cannot regard Mr. B. as an able narrator of either military or naval operations. This detail is also frequently interrupted and rendered confused by digressions in commendation of his lordship, with observations injurious to the characters of those who opposed his measures; and the biographer goes so far as to represent them as men notoriously of 'unworthiness and duplicity,' and 'of disaffection.' The rest of the narrative is chiefly occupied by 'a summary view of the situation and conduct of Sir Eyre Coote as commander in chief of the forces, and the influence they had on his immediate successor;' together with an account of the disputes in which Lord M. was engaged with that commander, the Bengal government, Sir Edward Hughes, General Stuart, Sir John Burgoyne, and Mr. Sadlier. Though we think that it would not have been wise to have vested Lord Macartney with that power of dictating in military affairs which he evidently coveted, it must be allowed that he shewed on many occasions both disinterestedness and integrity. When he arrived in the East Indies, he found the grossest abuses existing, and he certainly was very desirous of correcting them: but he discovered more zeal than prudence in his pursuits of reform, and did not seem to be aware that the evils had arrived at such a degree of enormity as to set reformation at defiance. His ruling passions appear to have been ambition and love of

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power, which led him into those disputes with the commanders of the troops and with the admiral, that more than once put the safety of the Carnatic to hazard. Mr. Barrow has brought forwards every document that contributes to place his lordship's conduct in these disputes in a favourable light, but has withholden those which might explain the views of his opponents. It must be granted, however, that Lord Macartney deserves credit for his address in obtaining from the Nabob of Arcot a voluntary assignment of the revenues of the Carnatic for the support of the war, which, in strict justice, (whatever his biographer may think,) he had no right to demand; for effecting a peace by no means dishonourable, while it was essential to the restoration of tranquillity, commerce, and prosperity to India; and for his strict œconomy in public expenditure. We have pleasure in recording the resolutions of the Court of Directors, which are an honourable testimony of their approbation of his conduct in rigorously adhering to his covenants and engagements with the company, by declining to accept of any presents from the country-powers, or any person whatsoever in India:

" *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this Court, that the Right Hon. George Lord Macartney, whilst he was governor of Madras, upon all occasions manifested the greatest zeal in support of the interests of this Company, and that he faithfully discharged his duty as such; more especially by adhering strictly to his covenants and engagements with the Company, in declining to accept any presents from the country powers, or from any person whatever in India; that the example set by his Lordship, in giving in upon oath a state of his property gained in the Company's service, was highly meritorious, in as much as such conduct was afterwards sanctioned by an act of the legislature, and by which statement it appears that his Lordship's fortune had been very moderately increased during his residence in India, and that the same arose solely from the savings he made from his salary and allowances authorized by this court.

" *Resolved*, That it is incumbent upon this Court to shew their fullest approbation of such upright and disinterested conduct, in the hope that so laudable an example will be followed by their servants in India; and moreover that it is fitting that some compensation should be made to his Lordship, and that it will be a proper reward for such distinguished services and strict integrity, to grant to his Lordship an annuity of fifteen hundred pounds during the term of his natural life."

It is a duty incumbent on us to point out a very great mistake into which Mr. Barrow has fallen, in attempting to vindicate Lord M.'s thirst of power, and desire of getting into his hands all military authority in the Carnatic:

' The navy (says Mr. B.) has always been considered to act distinctly and independently of the civil government in the colonies, but the

the army has invariably been placed under the civil power, wherever such power existed. A different system, however, or, more correctly speaking, a total want of system with regard to the military, prevailed in India.'

We are amazed that Mr. B. could have been so ignorant of the practice in our colonies as to make this representation. When the United States belonged to us, and the late Lord Amherst commanded our troops in North America, was he in the least degree subject in military matters to any civil authority there? On the other hand, did he require the governors of the different provinces to meet him, when he found it adviseable to lay before them the supplies of militia-men, &c. with which they were respectively to furnish him before he went to attack the French possessions in that quarter of the globe? Was Sir Guy Carleton, when commander in chief in Canada, controlled in military matters by civil authority in any part of British America? Was General Haldimand? Was General Campbell, when he commanded the troops in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, obliged to receive directions in military affairs from the governor of either province? Was H. R. H. the Duke of Kent, when commander in chief in British North America, under such liability with regard to any civil authority existing in it?—No.—The usual practice in those colonies, indeed, has been to vest the civil power in the officer commanding the troops, and not the military power on any occasion in the civil governor, unless he happened to be a military man; and the same plan seems to have been adopted when Lord Cornwallis was sent out to India as Governor-General.

Mr. Barrow's maxims of government for our settlements in India are far from being consistent with those of morality, and are not ill calculated for supporting every act of injustice and oppression that has been or may be perpetrated in that quarter. If the Mohammedan princes or Nabobs of India be even as worthless, base, and contemptible as he represents them, this is no good reason for our robbing, oppressing, and disinheriting them.

The biographer relates that, as Lord Macartney was sitting one night with a friend at Calcutta, he received a dispatch addressed to him as *Governor-General of Bengal;* and that, tearing off the cover, he cast it to his friend, who warmly congratulated him on the occasion, but was calmly told by his lordship, even before he had read the dispatch, that he did not mean to accept the intended honour. He accordingly declined the appointment; partly on account of his health, and partly because he conceived that, without essential reforms in the Bengal system, an increase of power to the Governor-General, the subordina-

subordination of the Commander in Chief, and the removal of General Hope and Mr. M'Pherson,—together with *such a distinguished mark of favour* as would shew to the world at large how high he stood with the crown, the ministry, and the company,—he could not execute the duties of the office with comfort to himself, or with advantage to the public. On his return to England in 1786, his application for *this distinguished mark of favour* (a British peerage) proving unsuccessful, Lord Cornwallis was appointed Governor-General.

The differences of Lord Macartney with civil and military officers, in India, involved him in two duels, one with Mr. Sadleir, and the other with Major-General Stuart, which latter took place after his return home. In both of these affairs, his lordship risked his personal safety in thus becoming answerable for his public conduct, with great coolness and intrepidity; and in each of them he was unfortunately wounded.

In 1788, Lord M. took his seat for the first time in the Irish House of Peers, was appointed *custos rotulorum* of the county of Antrim, and received the command of a militia regiment of dragoons. We are next told that Mr. Dundas, president of the Board of Controul, being now strongly impressed with the expediency of opening a communication with the court of Pekin, by means of an embassy, in which idea the East India Directors concurred with becoming spirit, was also induced to regard Lord Macartney as the *only* person capable of undertaking the mission with a probability of success. What success, however, attended this well-known expedition; what communication has been opened in consequence of it between the courts of St. James's and Pekin; and what benefit has ever resulted from it to this country? It would have been a wiser policy, and much better calculated for the security of our Asiatic possessions, to have endeavoured to form strict and permanent alliances with the powers in Persia. His lordship, however, accepted the employment, with the privilege of choosing his own suite, and with a salary of 15,000l. per annum; and before he departed he was made a privy counsellor, and advanced to the dignity of an Irish viscount. His appointment was that of ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary from the King of Great Britain to the Emperor of China; and he sailed from Spithead on the 26th of September 1792. On his return, he landed at Portsmouth, September 5, 1794, and was much pleased on finding himself created an Irish Earl. In the following year, his biographer informs us that he was sent to Italy on an important mission of a delicate and confidential nature, without mentioning either the object or the extent of it. During his absence, he was appointed Governor and Captain-General of

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the Cape of Good Hope, which had surrendered to our arms in September 1795. He sailed for that settlement in January 1797, with a salary of 10,000l. a year, and landed at the Cape on the 4th of May. It is much to his credit that, while he occupied this station, he would not on any consideration allow the soldiers to be paid in paper currency; and he certainly discovered both good management and spirit in quelling the second mutiny, which broke out in the squadron stationed for the protection of the place: the first having been subdued by the steady and firm conduct of Admiral Pringle. In January 1799, he returned to England, determined to retire wholly from public life; a resolution which was not broken, and which was finally sealed by his tranquil departure from the world itself, 31st March 1806.

Volume II. consists of four tracts from the pen of Lord Macartney: the first of which relates to the Russian empire; the second is a short sketch of the political history of Ireland; the third, a journal of the embassy to China; and the fourth, an appendix to the third, descriptive of the manners and character of the Chinese. Mr. Barrow states that the first of these compositions, as written by his lordship, is divided into twelve chapters; viz. the situation of Russia;—its population;—the genius and character of the people;—a view of its history, with an appendix, on the present state of the church of Russia in 1767;—the title of the sovereign;—its government and laws;—the nineteen governments into which it is divided;—its revenues;—its army;—its navy;—its resources;—and its manufactures and commerce. Mr. B. has chosen, however, to publish only the second, third, and fourth of these chapters, with the appendix; and they contain no more information than any person, in his lordship's official situation at St. Petersburgh, might easily have acquired from public documents and individuals resident on the spot. Chapter I. being devoted to describing the extent and boundaries of the Russian Empire, and the eminent advantages derived from its geographical position, we must suppose that Mr. Barrow conceived it to be too defective in topographical description to meet the public eye. As to his lordship's character of the Russians in general, we must observe that never yet was a whole nation peculiarly distinguished from another by a want of the powers of discrimination; and indeed he contradicts his own position that such is the case with the Russians, since he allows them to possess naturally *a great deal of shrewdness and sagacity, understanding and penetration.* Elsewhere, Lord M. asserts that their affections and springs of action are weaker than those of other nations; and he ascribes the sovereign despotism, which reigns in that country, to this feature of their

character. Yet in another part he seems to be conscious of his inability to account satisfactorily for the barbarism of the Russians, and their slow progress towards civilization; and he leaves the matter undecided, after having discussed the causes which other writers have assigned. We are inclined to think that the real and principal cause of the slow advancement of industry, commerce, civilization, and liberty in Russia, is the widely-scattered state of its population: for, although it has upwards of twenty-five millions of subjects, the greatest part of them are dispersed on an immense space of barren land, without towns or even villages, and with only a few miserable cottages, the possessors of which can with difficulty procure subsistence,—and certainly no superfluities, from which alone its government can draw advantage. While they continue thus spred over a miserable country, covered with snow and deprived of light for a considerable part of the year, it will be impossible for the productions of nature or of art to nourish a great number either of people or of brute animals; which can neither subsist nor increase but in proportion to the facility of procuring the necessaries of life. Both the industry and the powers of resistance of a given number of men is, *cæteris paribus*, in the inverse ratio of the space which they cover. The more contracted they are, the more industrious and more capable of defence they become; whereas their sloth, weakness, and poverty will always be in proportion to the extent of ground which they occupy.

Great empires have generally but little industry, for want of easy and speedy communications between their component parts; and Russia can never become either a very rich country or very powerful against brave and resolute invaders, till her population is brought into a narrower space, and till her subjects are settled in towns on the coasts of the Caspian and Black seas, and along the navigable rivers best calculated for facilitating the intercourse between them. Such settlements would increase their wants, and in course the industry necessary for supplying them: but any other attempt to promote industry among them will prove ineffectual. It is a change that cannot be effected by laws and institutions; which may direct the actions of mankind, and ought to regulate them, but cannot produce them. When Lord M. wrote his account of Russia, only one town of any note existed in all Siberia, and not one in either of the Laplands. It was the establishment of communities that first softened the rigour of the feudal system, and paved the way for the rise and growth of civil liberty; without which there can be no industry, for slavery is incompatible with commerce.

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Of Lord Macartney's treatise on Ireland, also, only the third section has been printed by Mr. Barrow; which is intitled "A short Sketch of the Political History of Ireland," from the *conquest* of it to the conclusion of Lord Townshend's administration. Lord M. seems to consider the way in which we acquired possession of that country as a conquest; and he compares the expedition of the English adventurers, who in the reign of Henry II. went over to Ireland to assist the suppliant chieftain of Leinster, to the labours of Theseus and Hercules! His account of this business, too, is somewhat different from that of the best historians. He says that Mac Morough, the prince of Leinster, solicited aid of Henry, and that these adventurers re-established him in his former dignity: but Dr. Leland states that "an odious fugitive, driven from his province by faction and revenge, gained a few adventurers in Wales, whom youthful valour or distress of fortune led into Ireland." These individuals embarked under the sanction of a general licence from Henry II. King of England, assisted Dermod King of Leinster in reducing his revolted subjects, and in return he invested them with divers towns and districts. This could not with any propriety be called a *conquest*: it was in fact a *settlement* granted by a *friend*, instead of a conquest made on an *enemy*.

Lord M.'s Journal of an embassy to China is written in a plain, easy, and familiar style, and throws some light on the character of the Chinese, though not a very large portion, because he did not understand their language: sufficient, however, for correcting the erroneous opinion that had formerly been entertained of their virtue, wisdom, and civilization.

Mr. Barrow observes that,

'Though the Journal, now published, was a material document in the hands of Sir George Staunton, in furnishing him with facts and occurrences, yet, in every other respect, it may be considered as a new and valuable addition to our stock of knowledge with regard to the genius and character of the Chinese nation. It not only tells us what was done on different occasions, but also what was said. The principal characters in the piece are brought before us, and introduced to our acquaintance. It not only conveys to us a general description of the manners and character of the court, but presents us, at the same time, with accurate sketches of individual portraits. It possesses besides a very material advantage in one respect over a regular composition intended to meet the public eye; all the observations it contains were made upon the spot, and immediately committed to paper in the shape they now stand; nothing comprehended in the whole compass of this Journal was afterwards inserted on the ground of recollection; observations made on this ground, Lord Macartney justly remarks, are apt to vary their hue considerably.'

In this latter view, certainly, the journal will gratify curiosity and afford amusement. We have not room for much quotation, but we shall copy the general opinion given by Lord M. respecting the empire itself, in a strain of simile which he was rather too apt to indulge:

'The empire of China is an old crazy first-rate man of war, which a fortunate succession of able and vigilant officers has contrived to keep afloat for these hundred and fifty years past; and to overawe their neighbours merely by her bulk and appearance; but whenever an insufficient man happens to have the command upon deck, adieu to the discipline and safety of the ship. She may perhaps not sink outright; she may drift some time as a wreck, and will then be dashed in pieces on the shore: but she can never be rebuilt on the old bottom.'

G. 2.

In the appendix, we meet with these observations:

'Although the difference of ranks be perhaps more distinctly marked in China than in any other country, yet I often observed that the Mandarines treat their domestic servants with great condescension, and talk to them with good nature and familiarity; but in return an unremitted attention and obedience are expected and never withheld.

'A Chinese family is regulated with the same regard to subordination and œconomy that is observed in the government of a state; the paternal authority, though unlimited, is usually exercised with kindness and indulgence. In China, children are indeed sometimes sold, and infants exposed by the parents, but only in cases of the most hopeless indigence and misery, when they must inevitably perish if kept at home; but when the thread of attachment is not thus snapped asunder by the anguish of the parent, it every day grows stronger and becomes indissoluble for life.

'There is nothing more striking in the Chinese character through all ranks than this most respectable union. Affection and duty walk hand in hand, and never desire a separation. The fondness of the father is constantly felt and always increasing; the dependence of the son is perfectly understood by him; he never wishes it to be lessened. It is not necessary to coax or to cheat the child into the cutting off an entail, or the charging his inheritance with a mortgage; it is not necessary to importune the father for an irrevocable settlement. According to Chinese ideas, there is but one interest in a family; any other supposition would be unnatural and wicked. An undutiful child is a monster that China does not produce; the son, even after marriage, continues for the most part to live in the father's house; the labour of the whole family is thrown into one common stock under the sole management of the parent; after whose death the eldest son often retains the same authority, and continues in the same union with his younger brothers.'

Here Lord M. adverts to infanticide, which prevails among them: but he does not attempt to point out the real causes of it,

it, which are the disrepute in which they hold celibacy, and their early marriages that occasion an immense population: together with the prohibition which their laws contain against emigration. These circumstances have certainly co-operated in giving rise to that horrid crime.

To conclude. We must remark that no person, who reads these volumes, can deny to Lord Macartney the praise of assiduity, integrity, personal courage, good intentions, and a scrupulous purity with regard to money-transactions which eminently deserves imitation: but to the unqualified commendation which his biographer every where showers down on him, we have found occasion in the course of this article to state our objections.

Cr. 2.

Glen.

ART. VII. *Mr.* Fox's *History of the early Part of the Reign of* James II.

[*Article continued from Vol.* lvi. *p.* 200.]

AN interval much longer than we intended, the private causes of which it is not necessary to state, but which we truly regret, has taken place since our first notice of this important volume. One consequence of this delay must be that, in the extracts which we may henceforwards make, we shall probably have been anticipated by most of our readers: but we cannot on this account deviate from a long established practice, by the exercise of which we shall materially enrich our pages. We should, moreover, by such an omission, leave our examination of the book incomplete, and depart from one of our most sacred rules, viz. that of allowing important works, as far as it is practicable, to speak for themselves;—and certainly no performance could suffer more from the violation of this custom than that which is now before us. We are also satisfied that the passages, which present themselves for selection, are such as cannot too often meet the eyes or be too deeply imprinted on the hearts of Britons.

In the introductory chapter, about the middle of which our former article broke off, it is to be observed that the author allows himself a wider range than the laws of historical composition for which he contends, if strictly pursued, would have permitted in the work itself. His severe but merited reprehension of Mr. Hume, while it exemplifies the candour and benignity which were so habitual to the illustrious writer, suggests important reflections with regard to that author in his character of historian. Having stated what his own notions were of the Ryehouse Plot, Mr. Fox stigmatizes the trial and execution

of Lord Russel as 'a most flagrant violation of law and justice;' and then adverting to the case of Sidney, he thus continues:

'The proceedings in Sidney's case were still more detestable. The production of papers, containing speculative opinions upon government and liberty, written long before, and perhaps never even intended to be published, together with the use made of those papers, in considering them as a substitute for the second witness to the overt act, exhibited such a compound of wickedness and nonsense as is hardly to be paralleled in the history of juridical tyranny. But the validity of pretences was little attended to, at that time, in the case of a person whom the court had devoted to destruction; and upon evidence such as has been stated, was this great and excellent man condemned to die. Pardon was not to be expected. Mr. Hume says, that such an interference on the part of the King, though it might have been an act of heroick generosity, could not be regarded as an indispensable duty. He might have said, with more propriety, that it was idle to expect that the government, after having incurred so much guilt in order to obtain the sentence, should, by remitting it, relinquish the object, just when it was within its grasp. The same historian considers the jury as highly blameable, and so do I; but what was their guilt, in comparison of that of the court who tried, and of the government who prosecuted, in this infamous cause? Yet the jury, being the only party that can with any colour be stated as acting independently of the government, is the only one mentioned by him as blameable. The prosecutor is wholly omitted in his censure, and so is the court; this last, not from any tenderness for the judge, (who, to do this author justice, is no favourite with him,) but lest the odious connection between that branch of the judicature and the government should strike the reader too forcibly; for Jefferies, in this instance, ought to be regarded as the mere tool and instrument, (a fit one, no doubt,) of the prince who had appointed him for the purpose of this and similar services. Lastly, the King is gravely introduced on the question of pardon, as if he had had no prior concern in the cause, and were now to decide upon the propriety of extending mercy to a criminal condemned by a court of judicature; nor are we once reminded what that judicature was, by whom appointed, by whom influenced, by whom called upon, to receive that detestable evidence, the very recollection of which, even at this distance of time, fires every honest heart with indignation. As well might we palliate the murders of Tiberius, who seldom put to death his victims without a previous decree of his senate. The moral of all this seems to be, that whenever a prince can, by intimidation, corruption, illegal evidence, or other such means, obtain a verdict against a subject whom he dislikes, he may cause him to be executed without any breach of indispensable duty; nay, that it is an act of heroick generosity if he spare him. I never reflect on Mr. Hume's statement of this matter but with the deepest regret. Widely as I differ from him upon many other occasions, this appears to me to be the most reprehensible passage of his whole work. A spirit of adulation towards deceased princes, though in a good measure free from the imputation of interested

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meanness which is justly attached to flattery, when applied to living monarchs; yet, as it is less intelligible, with respect to its motives, than the other, so is it in its consequences, still more pernicious to the general interests of mankind. Fear of censure from contemporaries will seldom have much effect upon men in situations of unlimited authority: they will too often flatter themselves, that the same power which enables them to commit the crime, will secure them from reproach. The dread of posthumous infamy, therefore, being the only restraint, their consciences excepted, upon the passions of such persons, it is lamentable that this last defence, (feeble enough at best,) should in any degree be impaired; and impaired it must be, if not totally destroyed, when tyrants can hope to find in a man like Hume, no less eminent for the integrity and benevolence of his heart, than for the depth and soundness of his understanding, an apologist for even their foulest murders.

'Thus fell Russel and Sidney, two names that will, it is hoped, be for ever dear to every English heart. When their memory shall cease to be an object of respect and veneration, it requires no spirit of prophecy to foretell that English liberty will be fast approaching to its final consummation. Their deportment was such as might be expected from men who knew themselves to be suffering, not for their crimes, but for their virtues. In courage they were equal, but the fortitude of Russel, who was connected with the world by private and domestic ties, which Sidney had not, was put to the severer trial; and the story of the last days of this excellent man's life, fills the mind with such a mixture of tenderness and admiration, that I know not any scene in history that more powerfully excites our sympathy, or goes more directly to the heart.'

If those who remind us of our faults be our best friends, a certain reverend body will have no right to be displeased with the faithful historian, who enters into a detail of a proceeding which stamps disgrace on their predecessors of the seventeenth century. To what disadvantage do these churchmen appear on a comparison with the patriotic English Primate of the days of king John; who was a foreigner and a catholic, yet who exerted his superior knowlege, and the authority which belonged to his high station, in guiding and animating the Barons to insist on the demands which laid the basis of those envied rights and liberties, which the protestant prelates of a later period were so anxious to extinguish and annihilate. Had this page made its appearance more early, the grave body in question might perhaps have shewn less alacrity in ratifying the exclusion of four millions of fellow-subjects from the pale of the constitution; and less fervour in praying that the ban to which they have been put may be irrevocable:—a proceeding which we are very confident will, in the estimation of posterity, redound as little to the honour of its authors as that of which the account follows:

'The very day on which Russel was executed, the University of Oxford passed their famous Decree, condemning formally, as impious and heretical propositions, every principle upon which the constitution of this or any other free country can maintain itself. Nor was this learned body satisfied with stigmatizing such principles as contrary to the Holy Scriptures, to the decrees of Councils, to the writings of the Fathers, to the faith and profession of the primitive church, as destructive of the kingly government, the safety of his Majesty's person, the publick peace, the laws of nature, and bounds of human society; but after enumerating the several obnoxious propositions, among which was one declaring all civil authority derived from the people; another, asserting a mutual contract, tacit or express, between the King and his subjects; a third, maintaining the lawfulness of changing the succession to the crown; with many others of a like nature, they solemnly decreed all and every of those propositions to be not only false and seditious, but impious, and that the books which contained them were fitted to lead to rebellion, murder of princes, and atheism itself. Such are the absurdities which men are not ashamed to utter in order to cast odious imputations upon their adversaries; and such the manner in which churchmen will abuse, when it suits their policy, the holy name of that religion whose first precept is to love one another, for the purpose of teaching us to hate our neighbours with more than ordinary rancour. If Much ado about Nothing had been published in those days, the town-clerk's declaration, that receiving a thousand ducats for accusing the Lady Hero wrongfully, was flat burglary, might be supposed to be a satire upon this decree; yet Shakespeare, well as he knew human nature, not only as to its general course, but in all its eccentrick deviations, could never dream, that, in the persons of Dogberry, Verges, and their followers, he was representing the vice-chancellors and doctors of our learned University.'

It may be observed to the credit of our age, that though we cannot perhaps boast of many prelates of more sound learning, nor on the whole more respectable as churchmen than Bishop Fell, yet we trust that in the present day not one would be found to act a part so little worthy of his station, as that which the reverend Prelate condescended to fulfill in the case of the great Locke. Such baseness in persons in high and sacred offices it is the province of history to expose, that it may serve as a memento to warn their successors against deviations equally unseemly. The venerable order, assailed as they are in these days from various quarters, and by numerous and active adversaries, can never be too sensible that the protection of the Prince, and of municipal laws, will not insure their safety without the additional barrier which is formed by worth, virtue, and piety;

'Among the oppressions of this period, most of which were attended with consequences so much more important to the several objects of persecution, it may seem scarcely worth while to notice the

the expulsion of John Locke from Christ Church College, Oxford. But besides the interest which every incident in the life of a person so deservedly eminent, naturally excites, there appears to have been something in the transaction itself characteristick of the spirit of the times, as well as of the general nature of absolute power. Mr. Locke was known to have been intimately connected with Lord Shaftesbury, and had very prudently judged it advisable for him, to prolong for some time his residence upon the Continent, to which he had resorted originally on account of his health. A suspicion, as it has been since proved, unfounded, that he was the author of a pamphlet which gave offence to the government, induced the King to insist upon his removal from his studentship at Christ Church. Sunderland writes, by the King's command, to Dr. Fell, Bishop of Oxford, and Dean of Christ Church. The reverend prelate answers, that he has long had an eye upon Mr. Locke's behaviour; but though frequent attempts had been made, (attempts of which the Bishop expresses no disapprobation,) to draw him into imprudent conversation, by attacking, in his company, the reputation, and insulting the memory, of his late patron and friend, and thus to make his gratitude, and all the best feelings of his heart, instrumental to his ruin, these attempts all proved unsuccessful. Hence the Bishop infers, not the innocence of Mr. Locke, but that he was a great master of concealment, both as to words and looks; for looks, it is to be supposed, would have furnished a pretext for his expulsion, more decent than any which had yet been discovered. An expedient is then suggested, to drive Mr. Locke to a dilemma, by summoning him to attend the College on the first of January ensuing. If he do not appear, he shall be expelled for contumacy; if he come, matter of charge may be found against him, for what he shall have said at London, or elsewhere, where he will have been less upon his guard than at Oxford. Some have ascribed Fell's hesitation, if it can be so called, in executing the King's order, to his unwillingness to injure Locke, who was his friend; others, with more reason, to the doubt of the legality of the order. However this may have been, neither his scruple nor his reluctance was regarded by a court who knew its own power. A peremptory order was accordingly sent, and immediate obedience ensued. Thus, while, without the shadow of a crime, Mr. Locke lost a situation attended with some emolument, and great convenience, was the University deprived of, or rather thus from the base principles of servility did she cast away, the man the having produced whom is now her chiefest glory; and thus, to those who are not determined to be blind, did the true nature of absolute power discover itself, against which the middling station is not more secure than the most exalted. Tyranny, when glutted with the blood of the great, and the plunder of the rich, will condescend to hunt humbler game, and make a peaceable and innocent fellow of a college the object of its persecution. In this instance one would almost imagine there was some instinctive sagacity in the government of that time, which pointed out to them, even before he had made himself known to the world, the man who

was destined to be the most successful adversary of superstition and tyranny.'

It is not, we conceive, among the slightest of the praise due to this volume, that it exhibits history duly attentive to her censorial functions, which are surely not the least important of her duties.

We are concerned to be obliged to pass over the relation here given of the practices of the Duke of York, and of the Court of France, to procure the dismissal from the ministry of the Marquis of Halifax; since it contains reflections which are very characteristic of the author.

If Mr. Fox's sketch of Charles the second's character presents us with no traits which had not before been attempted, we think that he displays them with a distinctness and precision which had been attained by no previous pencil:

'The ambition of Charles was directed solely against his subjects, while he was completely indifferent concerning the figure which he or they might make in the general affairs of Europe; and that his desire of power was more unmixed with love of glory than that of any other man whom history has recorded; that he was unprincipled, ungrateful, mean, and treacherous, to which may be added, vindictive, and remorseless. For Burnett, in refusing to him the praise of clemency and forgiveness, seems to be perfectly justifiable, nor is it conceivable upon what pretence his partizans have taken this ground of panegyrick. I doubt whether a single instance can be produced, of his having spared the life of any one whom motives, either of policy, or of revenge, prompted him to destroy. To alledge that of Monmouth, as it would be an affront to human nature, so would it likewise imply the most severe of all satires against the monarch himself, and we may add too an undeserved one. For in order to consider it as an act of meritorious forbearance on his part, that he did not follow the example of Constantine, and Philip the Second, by imbruing his hands in the blood of his son, we must first suppose him to have been wholly void of every natural affection, which does not appear to have been the case. His declaration, that he would have pardoned Essex, being made when that nobleman was dead, and not followed by any act evincing its sincerity, can surely obtain no credit from men of sense. If he had really had the intention, he ought not to have made such a declaration, unless he accompanied it with some mark of kindness to the relations, or with some act of mercy to the friends, of the deceased. Considering it as a mere piece of hypocrisy, we cannot help looking upon it as one of the most odious passages of his life. This ill-timed boast of his intended mercy, and the brutal taunt with which he accompanied his mitigation, (if so it may be called,) of Russel's sentence, shew his insensibility and hardness to have been such, that in questions where right feelings were concerned, his good sense, and even the good taste for which he has been so much extolled, seemed wholly to desert him.'

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We shall terminate our notice of the introductory chapter with its closing passage, in which the felicity of the language does not, in our judgment, equal the excellence of the thoughts :

'Whoever reviews the interesting period which we have been discussing, upon the principle recommended in the outset of this chapter, will find, that, from the consideration of the past, to prognosticate the future, would, at the moment of Charles's demise, be no easy task. Between two persons, one of whom should expect that the country would remain sunk in slavery,—the other, that the cause of freedom would revive and triumph,—it would be difficult to decide, whose reasons were better supported, whose speculations the more probable. I should guess that he who desponded, had looked more at the state of the publick, while he who was sanguine had fixed his eyes more attentively upon the person who was about to mount the throne. Upon reviewing the two great parties of the nation, one observation occurs very forcibly, and that is, that the great strength of the Whigs consisted in their being able to brand their adversaries as favourers of Popery; that of the Tories, (as far as their strength depended upon opinion, and not merely upon the power of the crown,) in their finding colour to represent the Whigs as republicans. From this observation we may draw a further inference, that, in proportion to the rashness of the Crown, in avowing and pressing forward the cause of Popery, and to the moderation and steadiness of the Whigs, in adhering to the form of monarchy, would be the chance of the people of England, for changing an ignominious despotism for glory, liberty, and happiness.'

Though Mr. Fox's sentiments on theories of government, as on all other subjects, were highly liberal and worthy of his comprehensive mind, yet it would be scarcely possible for the strongest bigot to the frame of our government to express a more decided preference of it, than is conveyed in the last passage. Notwithstanding that this part of the volume was considered by the author as in a sense finished, it will not be doubted by those who know what alterations are introduced into the parts of a large work at the several stages of its progress, that, had Mr. Fox lived to complete his plan, it would have owed much to future revision. If this observation holds good with regard to the introductory chapter, it applies still more strongly to the portion which has been executed of the history itself. When the state in which this fragment has come to us is considered, it will be admitted that it falls only very partially within the jurisdiction of criticism: she can proceed with no certainty in the exercise of her functions; she cannot see what future revisal would have lopped off, or added, or varied; tracing imperfectly the design, and uncertain in regard to the

scale of its construction, she cannot pronounce on all its beauties or deformities; and that which on one plan would offend might appear attractive on another. It being her province to judge and not to conjecture, she must, then, necessarily confine herself to observations of a very general nature.

The history commences with the accession of James, and extends to the execution of the Duke of Monmouth, embracing a period of little more than seven months. It discloses the spirit and temper of James's government, with the line of his foreign policy, and narrates the particulars of the ill fated expeditions of Argyle and Monmouth. This humiliating period exhibits our ancestors as resembling tame enervated Asiatics, rather than free and lofty minded Englishmen; they hug their chains, they kiss the rod, and they applaud the arm that is lifted up to chastise or extended to rob them. The first act of James, whom his Tory admirers represented as jealous of his country's honour, is abjectly to solicit from the deadly foe of his kingdoms the continuance of his brother's pension. The high-spirited historian exposes, with becoming indignation, the royal baseness and the degradation of its servile instruments: but he is less offended with the pitiful figure made by the monarch, than he is mortified to find that there should exist Englishmen of the first rank, capable of assisting in such infamous proceedings. Having detailed the particulars of what the author energetically designates as a 'disgusting scene of iniquity and nonsense, in which all the actors seemed to vie with each other in prostituting the sacred names of friendship, generosity, and gratitude, in one of the meanest and most criminal transactions which history records,' he introduces the following apposite and important reflections;

'The principal parties in the business, besides the King himself, to whose capacity, at least, if not to his situation, it was more suitable, and Lord Churchill, who acted as an inferior agent, were Sunderland, Rochester, and Godolphin, all men of high rank, and considerable abilities, but whose understandings, as well as their principles, seem to have been corrupted by the pernicious schemes in which they were engaged. With respect to the last mentioned nobleman in particular, it is impossible, without pain, to see him engaged in such transactions. With what self-humiliation must he not have reflected upon them in subsequent periods of his life! How little could Barillon guess that he was negotiating with one who was destined to be at the head of an administration, which, in a few years, would send the same Lord Churchill, not to Paris to implore Lewis for succours towards enslaving England, or to thank him for pensions to her monarch, but to combine all Europe against him, in the cause of liberty; to rout his armies, to take his towns, to humble his pride, and to shake to the foundation that fabrick of

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power which it had been the business of a long life to raise at the expence of every sentiment of tenderness to his subjects, and of justice and good faith to foreign nations! It is with difficulty the reader can persuade himself that the Godolphin and Churchill here mentioned, are the same persons who were afterwards, one in the cabinet, one in the field, the great conductors of the war of the Succession. How little do they appear in one instance! how great in the other! And the investigation of the cause to which this excessive difference is principally owing, will produce a most useful lesson. Is the difference to be attributed to any superiority of genius in the prince whom they served in the latter period of their lives? Queen Anne's capacity appears to have been inferior even to her father's. Did they enjoy in a greater degree her favour and confidence? The very reverse is the fact. But in one case they were the tools of a King plotting against his people; in the other, the ministers of a free government acting upon enlarged principles, and with energies which no state that is not in some degree republican can supply. How forcibly must the contemplation of these men in such opposite situations teach persons engaged in political life, that a free and popular government is desirable, not only for the publick good, but for their own greatness and consideration, for every object of generous ambition!'

In the subsequent passage, the view given of the designs of James in the early part of his reign differs from that which has been generally, and may we not add universally, entertained:

'Mr. Hume says, the King found himself, by degrees, under the necessity of falling into an union with the French monarch, who could alone assist him, in promoting the Catholick religion in England. But when that historian wrote, those documents had not been made publick, from which the account of the communications with Barillon has been taken, and by which it appears, that a connection with France was, as well in point of time, as in importance, the first object of his reign, and that the immediate specifick motive to that connection, was the same as that of his brother; the desire of rendering himself independent of Parliament, and absolute, not that of establishing Popery in England, which was considered as a more remote contingency. That this was the case, is evident from all the circumstances of the transaction, and especially from the zeal with which he was served in it by Ministers who were never suspected of any leaning towards Popery, and not one of whom, (Sunderland excepted,) could be brought to the measures that were afterwards taken in favour of that religion. It is the more material to attend to this distinction, because the Tory historians, especially such of them as are not Jacobites, have taken much pains to induce us to attribute the violences and illegalities of this reign to James's religion, which was peculiar to him, rather than to that desire of absolute power, which so many other princes have had, have, and always will have in common with him. The policy of such misrepresentation is obvious. If this reign is to be considered as a period insulated, as

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it were, and unconnected with the general course of history, and if the events of it are to be attributed exclusively to the particular character, and particular attachments of the monarch, the sole inference will be, that we must not have a Catholick for our King; whereas, if we consider it, which history well warrants us to do, as a part of that system which had been pursued by all the Stuart Kings, as well prior, as subsequent, to the Restoration, the lesson which it affords is very different, as well as far more instructive. We are taught, generally, the dangers Englishmen will always be liable to, if, from favour to a Prince upon the throne, or from a confidence, however grounded, that his views are agreeable to our own notions of the constitution, we, in any considerable degree, abate of that vigilant, and unremitting jealousy of the power of the crown, which can alone secure to us the effect of those wise laws that have been provided for the benefit of the subject; and still more particularly, that it is in vain to think of making a compromise with power, and by yielding to it in other points, preserving some favourite object, such, for instance, as the church in James's case, from its grasp.'

With regard to James's appointment of the Duke of Qeensbury, at this time, to be his commissioner in Scotland, Mr. Fox observes:

'This appointment is, in itself, a strong indication, that the King's views, with regard to that country at least, were similar to those which I have ascribed to him in England; and that they did not at that time extend to the introduction of Popery, but were altogether directed to the establishment of absolute power as the *end*, and to the support of an episcopal church, upon the model of the church of England, as the *means*. For Queensbury had explained himself to his Majesty, in the fullest manner, upon the subject of religion; and while he professed himself to be ready, (as indeed his conduct in the late reign had sufficiently proved,) to go any length in supporting royal power, and in persecuting the Presbyterians, had made it a condition of his services, that he might understand from his Majesty, that there was no intention of changing the established religion; for if such was the object he could not make any one step with him in that matter. James received this declaration most kindly; assured him that he had no such intention, and that he would have a parliament, to which he, Queensbury, should go as commissioner; and giving all possible assurances in the matter of religion, get the revenue to be settled, and such other laws to be past, as might be necessary for the publick safety. With these promises the Duke was not only satisfied at the time, but declared, at a subsequent period, that they had been made in so frank and hearty a manner, as made him conclude, that it was impossible the King should be acting a part. And this nobleman was considered, and is handed down to us by contemporary writers, as a man of a penetrating genius, nor has it ever been the national character of the country to which he belonged, to be more liable to be imposed upon than the rest of mankind.'

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That a representation of the designs of a monarch so little cautious and reserved as James II. should at this day be at once novel and correct, may justly excite surprize, but we are inclined to think that it is true. The view of the matter here imparted coincides with the system pursued by this monarch, while he administered the government under his brother; and on any other hypothesis, the confidence placed in him by the tories and high church party is inexplicable. Had they imparted the slightest suspicion of his intending to subvert the church of England in order to restore that of Rome, their devotion to his person and government would have been less ardent, and their effusions of loyalty less extravagant; and they would not have been in such haste to pledge themselves to those professions, which shortly afterward reduced them to the alternative of becoming either self-converted apostates, or traitors and rebels. The letters of Barillon, however, seem to be decisive on the point. In the first conference with that minister, James tells him, "that without the support and protection of his most Christian Majesty, he should never be able to attempt what he designed in favour of the Catholics; and that he well knew that he should never be secure, unless entire liberty of conscience was established for them in England." In another letter, Barillon informs his master, "that James had explained to him to the very bottom (*à fonds*) his design with regard to the Catholics; which is to establish them in an entire liberty of conscience and exercise of their religion; this can only be done with time, and by gradually giving that direction to affairs. It is his Majesty's intention to attain this object through the support and aid of the episcopal party." The British monarch communicated very freely with Barillon, and kept nothing secret from him which regarded the subject of religion. —On another occasion, that envoy informs his sovereign, "that the king of England had observed to him that he (Barillon) knew his intentions and designs more fully than his own ministers, that he had not explained himself so openly to them as to him on the establishment of the catholic religion, and that he well knew that his safety depended on a close union with the king of France, and on placing the catholic religion in a situation not to be destroyed." In other letters, mention is made of the establishment of the catholic religion: but it is clear from a consideration of the context, and a comparison of such passages with those which we have inserted, and more which might be added to them, as well as from the whole scope of the correspondence, that the establishment intended did not go beyond the free exercise of the catholic religion, and the eligibity to offices of those who professed that faith: but the French minister,

minister, writing to his master, says that he foresees great difficulties in the way of the latter concession, and expresses a hope that they may be smoothed by some compromise. Barillon elsewhere tells the French monarch, "that he has so good an opinion of the firmness of the king of England in the profession which he makes of the catholic religion, as to be fully persuaded that he will employ all his authority to re-establish its free exercise, without any necessity for exciting him to do so by a premature distribution of money." It would, then, seem that it was owing to the servile devotion of the Tories to the arbitrary designs of James, to the slavish doctrines inculcated by the church, to the fulsome addresses of the university of Oxford and other bodies, and to the base complaisance of the English and Scottish parliaments, that the ill-fated prince was inspired with the presumption that hurried him to those measures which ultimately effected his ruin.

The good faith observed by Mr. Fox, in the execution of his office, has led to the detection of a liberty taken by Mr. Hume which deeply affects his character as a man and as an author; and which it is difficult to reconcile with the opinion that has been usually entertained of his worth and general good qualities. Having stated the grant of the royal revenue by parliament to have been unanimous, Mr. Fox adds:

'There does not appear to have been any thing which can justly be styled a debate upon it; though Hume employs several pages in giving the arguments which, he affirms, were actually made use of, and, as he gives us to understand, in the House of Commons, for and against the question; arguments which, on both sides, seem to imply a considerable love of freedom, and jealousy of royal power, and are not wholly unmixed even with some sentiments disrespectful to the King. Now I cannot find, either from tradition, or from contemporary writers, any ground to think, that either the reasons which Hume has adduced, or indeed any other, were urged in opposition to the grant.'

The length to which this fabrication extends in misleading is then ascertained by Mr. Fox with his usual precision.

Had this volume no other merit than that of detecting the disguises, the sophistries, and the impostures interspersed through the fascinating but unfaithful pages of Hume, more effectually than that service had ever before been accomplished, and of painting in its true colours and exhibiting in its full extent the paltry mendicity and inveterate enmity to our liberties of the last two princes of the house of Stuart, such merit would intitle its author to a distinguished place in the esteem and affections of his countrymen.

To return, however, to our narrative. So devoted was this abject parliament to the will of James, that he declared it contained

tained not forty members whom he would not himself have named; and Mr. Fox truly states that this servile body 'afforded a tolerably correct sample of the disposition of the nation, and especially of the church party ~~who~~ which was then uppermost.' A picture of the party then predominant in the country, sketched with great felicity and force, and which cannot be too attentively studied by the readers of English history, concludes the present chapter:

'Its general character at this time appears to have been a high notion of the King's constitutional power, to which was superadded, a kind of religious abhorrence of all resistance to the Monarch, not only in cases where such resistance was directed against the lawful prerogative, but even in opposition to encroachments, which the Monarch might make beyond the extended limits which they assigned to his prerogative. But these tenets, and still more, the principle of conduct naturally resulting from them, were confined to the civil, as contradistinguished from the ecclesiastical, polity of the country. In church matters, they neither acknowledged any very high authority in the Crown, nor were they willing to submit to any royal encroachment on that side; and a steady attachment to the church of England, with a proportionable aversion to all dissenters from it, whether Catholick or Protestant, was almost universally prevalent among them. A due consideration of these distinct features in the character of a party so powerful in Charles's and in James's time, and even when it was lowest (that is, during the reigns of the two first Princes of the House of Brunswick,) by no means inconsiderable, is exceedingly necessary to the right understanding of English History. It affords a clue to many passages otherwise unintelligible. For want of a proper attention to this circumstance, some historians have considered the conduct of the Tories in promoting the Revolution, as an instance of great inconsistency. Some have supposed, contrary to the clearest evidence, that their notions of passive obedience, even in civil matters, were limited, and that their support of the government of Charles and James was founded upon a belief, that those Princes would never abuse their prerogative for the purpose of introducing arbitrary sway. But this hypothesis is contrary to the evidence both of their declarations and their conduct. Obedience without reserve, an abhorrence of all resistance, as contrary to the tenets of their religion, are the principles which they professed in their addresses, their sermons, and their decrees at Oxford; and surely nothing short of such principles, could make men esteem the latter years of Charles the Second, and the opening of the reign of his successor, an era of national happiness, and exemplary government. Yet this is the representation of that period, which is usually made by historians, and other writers of the church party. "Never were fairer promises on one side, nor greater generosity on the other," says Mr. Echard. "The King had as yet, in no instance, invaded the rights of his subjects," says the author of the Caveat against the Whigs. Thus, as long as James contented

tented himself with absolute power in civil matters, and did not make use of his authority against the church, every thing went smooth and easy; nor is it necessary, in order to account for the satisfaction of the parliament and people, to have recourse to any implied compromise, by which the nation was willing to yield its civil liberties as the price of retaining its religious constitution. The truth seems to be, that the King, in asserting his unlimited power, rather fell in with the humour of the prevailing party, than offered any violence to it. Absolute power in civil matters, under the specious names of monarchy and prerogative, formed a most essential part of the Tory creed; but the order in which Church and King are placed in the favourite device of the party, is not accidental, and is well calculated to shew the genuine principles of such among them as are not corrupted by influence. Accordingly, as the sequel of this reign will abundantly shew, when they found themselves compelled to make an option, they preferred, without any degree of inconsistency, their first idol to their second, and when they could not preserve both Church and King, declared for the former.

'It gives certainly no very flattering picture of the country, to describe it as being in some sense fairly represented by this servile Parliament, and not only acquiescing in, but delighted with, the early measures of James's reign; the contempt of law exhibited in the arbitrary mode of raising his revenue; his insulting menace to the Parliament, that if they did not use him well, he would govern without them; his furious persecution of the Protestant dissenters, and the spirit of despotism which appeared in all his speeches and actions. But it is to be remembered, that these measures were in no wise contrary to the principles or prejudices of the church party, but rather highly agreeable to them; and that the Whigs, who alone were possessed of any just notions of liberty, were so outnumbered, and discomfited by persecution, that such of them as did not think fit to engage in the rash schemes of Monmouth or Argyle, held it to be their interest to interfere as little as possible in publick affairs, and by no means to obtrude upon unwilling hearers, opinions and sentiments, which, ever since the dissolution of the Oxford parliament in 1681, had been generally discountenanced, and of which the peaceable, or rather triumphant accession of James to the throne, was supposed to seal the condemnation.'

The revolutions which have taken place in this party would furnish matter for a disquisition not less important than curious. They have much relaxed in theory. The modern Tory professes the creed of the Whig, more or less tinged with his former principles, but he still adheres to the practice of his sect; formerly the advocate of divine right, he is now a stickler for influence; once the impugner of the free provisions of the constitution, he now labours to render them inefficient; adhering to its letter, he is hostile to its spirit, and draws no distinction between its decayed and its sound parts; he does not make

public consideration the road to preferment, but seeks it in the channel of court favour; and though in speculation the Tories of this day may differ from their predecessors, the line of conduct pursued by them both is precisely the same.

[*To be concluded in our next Number.*] **Jo.**

ART. VIII. *A Voyage of Discovery to the North Pacific Ocean*: in which the Coast of Asia from the Lat. of 35° North, to the Lat. of 52° North, the Island of Insu, (commonly known under the Name of the Land of Jesso,) the North, South, and East Coasts of Japan, the Lieuchieux and the adjacent Isles, as well as the Coast of Corea, have been examined and surveyed Performed in his Majesty's Sloop Providence, and her Tender, in the Years 1795, 1796, 1797, 1798. By William Robert Broughton. 4to. pp. 420. and 9 Plates. 1l. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

CONTINGENCIES of various kinds will arise in the progress of our employment, which defeat our intentions and obstruct our duty with regard to some of the numerous publications that come before us. We occasionally find it necessary to allude to these impediments, in excuse for the tardy notice which we take of works thus circumstanced: but we seldom, if ever, deem it requisite to specify the particular causes of the delay. It is unimportant to the public, and even to the author of the book in question, whether our report of it has been protracted by accidental oversight, or by the domestic misfortunes, personal illness, or the negligence of the individual to whom it has been intrusted; and we consider it as sufficient to state that no design to injure or shew contempt for the work has been the cause, when its importance has induced us to examine it, even at a distance of time from its first appearance, much longer than the utmost extent of its *turn of insertion* could have produced. One of these cases has arisen in the instance of the narrative which we are now introducing to our readers; and while we are conscious of being exempt from blame on the occasion, we feel regret that our account of it has been withholden during a period almost as long as the voyage itself had occupied. We cannot, however, persuade ourselves to refrain from paying to it even this late tribute of that attention which is undoubtedly its due. G. 2.

Captain Broughton's voyage to the North Pacific ocean is chiefly valuable for the addition which it has made to our geographical knowlege; especially that which it has communicated respecting Japan, a country whose inhabitants have so perseveringly continued to seclude themselves from intercourse with

with the rest of mankind. Captain B. went over much of the same ground (if the phrase may be applied to navigation) which the unfortunate La Pérouse had before traversed, and their joint discoveries may be said to have completed the geography of the eastern coast of the Korea, and of the Japanese islands.

This volume has likewise given us some insight into the *character* and present *disposition* of the Japanese. The communication which Captain B. obtained with those people was not considerable, but it was of a very characteristic nature; and that it was not more is by no means attributable to any coldness, neglect of opportunity, or want of exertion, on the part of the Captain, for perhaps since the time of the great massacre of the Christians in Japan, no European has taken more pains to overcome their repugnance to the visits of foreigners.

The ship provided by government for making this voyage was the same which had been employed in conveying the bread-fruit-tree from the South Sea to the West Indies; and the intention of the present expedition was to join Captain Vancouver on the west coast of North America. Captain Broughton sailed from England in February 1795, and arrived at New South Wales in August. Thence he crossed the Pacific ocean, stopping in his route at Otaheite and at the Sandwich islands; and in March 1796 he anchored in Nootka Sound, on the west coast of North America. He there learnt that Captain Vancouver had left the coast above a year before, and had departed for England.

From Nootka Sound, Captain B. now sailed to Monterey, in which port he anchored in June:

'It was now necessary (says he) I should come to some determination respecting my future proceedings. My orders from the Admiralty were, that I should survey the southern coast of the south-west part of South America, upon the idea that Captain Vancouver, who had similar orders, would not be able to fulfil them. But as I now had certain intelligence that he had left this port eighteen months before, and that both the ships, Discovery and Chatham, under his command, were in a good condition, I had not the smallest doubt of his ability to comply with his instructions; particularly as I had information of his sailing from Val. Paraiso in lat. 33° S. for that purpose. As this was the case, my proceedings in future depended upon my own discretion: and I wished to employ his majesty's sloop under my command, in such a manner as might be deemed most eligible for the improvement of geography and navigation. I therefore demanded of the officers their sentiments in writing, respecting the manner in which these discretionary powers allowed to me might most effectually be employed.'

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The result was that Captain B. resolved to quit the American coast, and to sail for Japan and the coast of Asia: pursuant to which determination, he departed from the American continent in the same month, June, and arrived in September on the shores of Japan.—He examined the whole eastern coast of Nipon, the principal of the Japanese Islands, and extended his surveys northward to some of the Kurile islands, and southward to the Lieuchieux islands and Formosa. In December, he sailed to Macao, where he refitted his ship, and purchased a schooner. In April 1797, he sailed again north eastward to resume his task:—but on the 17th of May, his vessel (the Providence) struck on a reef of coral rocks, on the north side of the island Typinsan, which is between Formosa and the Lieuchieux islands, and was there wrecked. All the people got safe on board the schooner; and by the assistance of the inhabitants of Typinsan, who with great humanity administered to their distresses, they were soon enabled to sail on their return to Macao, which was rendered necessary by their circumstances.

'As it plainly appeared (says Capt. B.) from the master's representation we had nothing to expect from the wreck of the ship, any unnecessary delay here became dangerous from the want of provisions, having a very insufficient quantity even at short allowance, considering our passage to Canton was to be made against the S.W. monsoon; and for so numerous a crew (viz. 112 souls) we could only carry three weeks' water: added to which, the smallness of the vessel prevented more than one-fourth of the number being below at the same time: and we had to dread every complaint among the people, who were without clothing and destitute of every comfort, should we have to encounter bad weather. It was my idea, had we saved a sufficient quantity of provisions from the ship, to have left seventy men on the island while I prosecuted the voyage in the schooner, returning for them in the N. E. monsoon, after concluding the survey to the North: but I much fear, from the dislike the inhabitants had to our seeing the country, they would have prevented the execution of my plan, at least with their consent; and without their approbation it would not have been adviseable.

'In the morning of the 23d we received from our friends the remainder of their presents, which amounted in all to 50 bags of wheat, 20 of rice and three of sweet potatoes; each bag containing 1 cwt. also, one bullock of 3 cwt., six large hogs, and plenty of poultry. Indeed whatever we asked for they immediately sent us; but our small vessel would not admit any thing more: and what was most acceptable, they gave at last all their jars full of water, containing five gallons each, at least as many as we could store upon deck.

'In the course of the day the heel of the ship's fore-mast went past: also a great deal of her planking. We towed the mast on

shore, and took the iron hoops from it that we had so lately put on. The mast itself was perfectly rotten.

'When the schooner was ready for sailing, accompanied by the officers, we paid our last visit, carrying with us some trifling presents, the most acceptable we had. We endeavoured to make them comprehend how sensible we were of their kind attention, and I believe we succeeded, as they accepted our gifts with great satisfaction, particularly a drawing of the ship and a telescope. After partaking of their refreshments, these venerable old men accompanied us to the beach, where the long-boat completely rigged, fitted with sails, &c. lay at anchor, ready for their acceptance. They received her with great joy, and directly took possession. Thus did we part most amicably with these humane civilized people, not unaffected by the favours we had received from them in our distressed situation.'

At Macao, Captain B. found many English ships lying, and thus had an opportunity of dividing his crew, which was too numerous for his small vessel; and all except thirty, whom he retained with him, were dispersed on board different ships.—On the 27th of June [1797] he sailed again north-eastward, having only the small schooner. From this time to the middle of November, he was employed in examining the coasts of the Japanese islands, of the east side of the Korea, and the Gulf of Tartary: towards the end of that month he returned to Macao, and thence by the East Indian Sea to Europe.

In this brief sketch of the voyage, the enterprising spirit of the Commander is conspicuous; more particularly in his latter excursion eastward from China, when, in a small schooner only, he prosecuted his examinations, regardless of the prejudices and even the prohibitions of a people who had long been the professed enemies of christians. It appears to us, on the whole, that few of the voyages made since the time of Captain Cook are capable of yielding so much either of important information, or of entertainment, as this voyage of Captain Broughton must have done if the narrative had been carefully drawn up and published: but we have been informed that, unfortunately for the work, while it was in the press, the Captain was absent at sea on public service; and the want of his superintendance appears in the nautical remarks, which in some parts are not clear, in others are defective, and of which more is inserted than is either necessary or useful. A great instance of oversight in the publishers is their not having given, with the narrative of the voyage, a copy of a large map of the Japanese islands which Captain Broughton procured from one of the inhabitants, and which was of their own construction. A fac simile of this specimen of the state of geography among the Japanese, which must be regarded as native

tive authority for the geography of their own country, and certainly the best authority for the interior parts, would have been a very satisfactory present to the world.

Notwithstanding these and other omissions, this narrative is always to be valued as the original and authentic account of a voyage of much geographical importance; and in the parts which are not nautical, we find much that will gratify curiosity. From these portions we shall now lay before our readers a few extracts.

On the ship's arrival at the island of Eso, (by Captain Broughton called Insu), the disinclination of the Japanese to the entrance of Europeans in their ports was immediately manifested. The native inhabitants of Insu, however, did not shew the same dislike to holding intercourse with strangers; and Capt. B. relates,

'At sun-rise the boats were sent in search of water, which was found opposite our situation; and the Japanese who attended, signified it was very good. Several of the natives accompanied us; but the jealousy of one man would not let them approach within a certain distance. They spread mats on the beach, while we were filling water; and entered into conversation with us, smoking small pipes of tobacco at the same time. Their inquiries seemed to allude to our departure, and to shew their anxiety for our going away. On our proceeding towards the village they strongly objected; and to avoid any difference, we gave up the point.

'We rowed along the beach to the westward about two miles; the country gradually rose in sloping hills, covered with verdure and interspersed with wood We came to a fine stream of water near some houses; on our landing, the natives with great humility brought us mats to sit upon, and fortunately there was no Japanese present to interrupt their civility.'

The people of Insu were observed to be under great subjection to the Japanese. On taking in wood and water,

'The natives constantly attended our people on shore, bartering grapes for buttons; and sometimes we were able to persuade the fishermen as they passed by the ship, to sell us some fish; but this we could but seldom obtain.

'The master was sent to examine the shore between the ship and the apparent island. In the morning we were visited by a new party of Japanese, superior to the others in dress, and equally so in behaviour. We derived not only pleasure, but information also, from their society, They shewed us a chart of the world, which appeared to have been constructed in Russia; and having a book with them in which were drawn the arms of different countries, they immediately pointed out those of Great Britain, to which country they supposed us to belong. They had also a Russian alphabet, and by what I could understand, one of them had been at Petersburg. We had on board a seaman of that country, who conversed with them in

his native language. They permitted me to copy a large chart of the islands to the north of Japan, and promised me to bring one of their own doing the next day. After mutual civilities they went on shore. The master returned in the evening, having found a very good harbour in the N. E corner of the bay, formed by the apparent island, which he discovered to be a peninsula.

'Fine weather enabled us to get every thing from the shore, and we prepared for going to sea. Our Japanese friends joined our party at dinner, and presented me with a chart of their own doing; in return I gave them Captain Cook's general chart of the world, which gratified them extremely. They were curious in making remarks on whatever they saw; and what they could not comprehend, they immediately represented in India ink drawings. They seemed highly pleased to hear that we intended to depart shortly.'—

'The food of the inhabitants of Insu consists chiefly of dried fish, boiled with sea-weed, and mixed with a little oil made from the liver of the sun-fish. They also feed upon several kinds of fruits and vegetables, such as grapes, winter berries, the fruit of the bramble, and others, with millet seed, &c. At the villages they kept young bears and eagles in cages, probably for food, as we could not prevail upon them to part with any. Indeed their poverty seemed to allow little in the way of barter; for even fish we could seldom procure, though it was their constant employment to catch them. Wild grapes were plentiful, and a species of garlic or chives.'—

'They were tributary to the Japanese, who prevented them as much as they could from having any intercourse with us; for whenever they appeared, the Japanese drove them away. They appeared a most harmless inoffensive race of men; and we regretted much the jealousy of the Japanese, which entirely prevented us from acquiring the information we wished concerning their customs and manners. They speak in a slow timid manner; and their language contains many Japanese words. There were some trifling plantations of Indian corn and millet, but few other signs of cultivation. This we the more wondered at, as their diet seemed very scanty and precarious; and the ground produced abundance of vegetables, as we observed in the gardens belonging to the Japanese.'

After the wreck of the ship, Captain B. and his people went to China, as already mentioned. When he returned to resume his discoveries eastward, he anchored in the schooner without the entrance of Napachan harbour, at the chief of the Lieuchieux (Lequois) islands. The wind blew fresh, and made landing difficult for the ship's boat: but boats came on board from the shore. On the next day,

'The wind still blew fresh from the south, which occasioned so great a surf on the shore that no boat could land except in the harbour, which to us was inadmissible. This restriction was extremely mortifying, as I was anxious to acquire some knowledge of the manners and customs of these people; and all my endeavours had hitherto proved ineffectual: nor could my intreaties persuade them to let some

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of the officers go on shore in their boats. I therefore determined to send them in our own boat; but the principal person remaining on board would not accompany them, and seemed extremely displeased at their going. They were landed without any objection in the harbour, and the boat returned immediately In the mean while, our friend had gone ashore in one of their own boats.

'In about an hour we saw the officers coming off, escorted by their friends, and gave me the following accoun of their reception, &c. On their landing at the pier-head they were met by several of the principal people, who conducted them along the causeway leading to the town; but, after some conversation, they were shewn into a large dwelling-house, and entertained with refreshments of tea and tobacco Here they remained, nor could they prevail upon their company to let them proceed any farther: they therefore (opposition having no effect) returned on board.

'They found the entrance into the harbour very narrow; and in the fair way they had 2½ fathoms just after low water; and within the port they had seven fathoms. It took a widening direction to the S.W., and was of considerable extent. They counted 20 large junks at anchor, chiefly Japanese, from 200 to 300 tons burthen.

'On each side of the entrance was an apparent block-house, or place of defence, built of stones in a square form, with loop holes. The causeway leading to the town was 300 or 400 yards long, with arches underneath, to give the water a free passage; for as the tide flowed up to the town, over the coral banks which extended from it to the pier-head, it was necessary to give the water its course without any obstruction. The town extended along the shore to the north some distance; and from the number of people we saw at different times, I should suppose it very populous. The houses were of one story, and the roofs covered with a brick tiling. Trees were interspersed among the houses; and the country rising to a moderate elevation at the back of the town, variegated with cultivations and clumps of woods, equally diversified the view from the sea.

'At the extreme of the town, to the north, was a burial-ground. The tomb-stones were whitened, and seemed to lay in an east and west direction. They are conspicuous as you sail into the roads.

'These people perfectly understood our having been at Typinsan, but could not comprehend what we had done with our men; not conceiving we had been since at China.'

Captain B. again visited the island Insu:

'After our arrival we were visited by some Japanese, who came from the town of Matzmai, as we understood them, on purpose to find out of what nation we were, and our intentions in coming here. And on the 18th our old friends arrived; the same we had noticed last year for their civility. They seemed much surprised at seeing us in so small a vessel, and could not well account for our coming here again. As they came expressly to look after us, and to prevent our intercourse with the natives, we had always their company either on board or on shore where they resided opposite the vessel They were anxious for our departure, and strongly urged it every day, but

in a very civil manner. I had to regret we could not understand each other better, this man being equally intelligible and communicative. I acquired from him a very compleat map of the Japanese islands, with strong injunctions not to acknowledge from whom I procured it; as they explained the parting with it would bring them into disgrace and punishment were it known.

'These people informed us that the proper name of this extensive island was Insu or Insoo, and universally called so by the natives: Matzmai applying only to the town and district inhabited by the Japanese, situate opposite to the coast of Nipon, in the straits. They also informed us of the Russians trading to Ago-dad-dy, a port on the island to the N. E. of Matzmai, which they represented as a very good harbour, much superior to Endormo.'

Jealousy of the visits of Europeans is not confined to the Japanese, and to the islanders in these seas, since the inhabitants of the Korea appear to entertain this sentiment in a degree equally strong. At the harbour of Chosan on the eastern coast of the Korea, Captain Broughton's vessel, a short time after her arrival, was visited by two canoes, in which were some of the inhabitants dressed in a superior style to any that had yet been seen:

'In each canoe were some soldiers carrying small spears, that were as staffs to their colours, which were a blue sattin field, with their arms in yellow characters. The hats of the soldiers were decorated with peacocks feathers. They made me a present of salt fish, rice, and sea-weed (fucus sacharinus).

'After many inquiries respecting us, we plainly saw they were extremely anxious for our departure, which I explained to them was impossible, as we were much in want of wood, water, and refreshments. They immediately offered to send us any quantity of the former; but I could not persuade them to send any of the cattle we pointed out to them, grazing on the shore.'

On the 21st, says Captain B.,

'Before day light I left the vessel, unperceived by our Korean guards, and proceeded up the harbour to complete a sketch of it. At day-light we saw fires near our village, which we supposed were signals respecting the boat. We however, having landed on the southern side, and continued examining that side of the harbour, remained unperceived by them, as there were no habitations near us, and returned on board to breakfast. It appeared our absence had thrown the village into great confusion: boats were dispatched in every direction after us, but we had escaped them all. The morning was favourable, and we took our last altitudes. Soon after, we received a visit from one of our principal friends, who seemed particularly pleased at our preparation for sailing. I presented him with a telescope and a pistol, the only articles he seemed desirous of possessing; and we parted with mutual satisfaction. We soon after got under way, and made sail out of the harbour, to the great joy

of our Korean friends, who were assembled in great numbers on the adjacent hills observing our departure. We felt ourselves much obliged by their supplies of wood and water, without expecting any thing in return.'—

'It will be observed how little opportunity we had to make any remarks upon the customs and manners of these people, from their avoiding as much as possible any intercourse with us. Indeed this treatment we have been universally accustomed to, both at the island of Insoo and the Lieuchieux islands. It appears by their behaviour they are by no means desirous of cultivating any intercourse whatever with strangers. They seemed to look upon us with great indifference, which I suppose was owing to the insignificancy of our vessel.'

An Appendix contains a table shewing the daily progress of the vessel; and some specimens of the Korean, Japanese, Insu, and Lieuchieux languages.

Capt. B...y.

ART. IX. *A Practical Treatise on the Powers of Cantharides*, when used internally, demonstrated by Experiment and Observation, in Three Parts, including an Inquiry concerning the Nature and proper medical Treatment of Gleet, Leucorrhœa, and obstinate Sores. By John Roberton, Surgeon, Edinburgh, &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Mundell and Co., Edinburgh; Murray, London.

THE object of this work is to bring into notice the internal use of a remedy which is daily employed as an external application, and to recommend it as almost a specific for gleet, leucorrhœa, and a certain description of obstinate sores. Mr. Roberton enters on the consideration of gleet by some remarks on the character of the disease, and the diagnosis between it and gonorrhœa. This is universally admitted to be a point of much obscurity; and he finds no difficulty in proving that many of the most eminent practitioners have either confounded them, or endeavoured to establish fallacious and inadequate marks of discrimination. We do not, however, observe that his own definition throws any new light on the subject, nor that it is more likely to prevent confusion than those of his predecessors. He merely states that he proposes to call the affection, when combined with active inflammation, *gonorrhœa*; and when unaccompanied by it, *gleet*, without regard to the cause which originally produced it.

Whatever may be our idea of the nature of gleet, and however difficult it may be to distinguish it in some instances, the majority of cases are easily recognized, and are allowed by practitioners to be among the most unmanageable diseases which fall under their treatment. This is indeed so much the case, that some of the most celebrated authors have not

hesitated to confess that the cure of gleet is an event not to be expected, that no certain remedy is known for it, and that, if it be relieved, it is more by accidental causes than by the acknowleged operation of any appropriate remedy. In this state of uncertainty, it is natural to suppose that numerous applications must have been tried; and that, from so many experiments, some approximation to success must have occasionally been experienced. Mr. Hunter has given an account of two cases, in which very considerable advantage seems to have been derived from applying blisters to the perinæum; and from this circumstance it would appear that Mr. Roberton derived the practice which he has found so successful, of administering the cantharides internally. He relates, with considerable minuteness, a number of cases, in which he tried this remedy; and it must be admitted that the result, as stated by him, is in the highest degree flattering. Gleets, that probably would have been little affected by the usual modes of treatment, were by these means speedily removed; and this effect was produced either without any disagreeable consequences, or at most with such as were by no means of a magnitude that could counterbalance the benefit derived. The method of applying the remedy was to give the tincture of cantharides in the dose of 10 or 12 drops thrice in the course of the day, and the following is the description of the effects of the treatment:

'The pulse is strengthened, appetite improved, mind rendered more cheerful, the matter of the discharge from any diseased surface becomes opaque, is inspissated, and assumes the appearance of pus.

'At this time, for the most part, a greater or less degree of pain affects the parts, whence the discharge proceeded, which goes off, if the medicine is not taken, increases if it continues to be taken, and is kept up, if the dose is only diminished.

'In the meantime, the discharge varies in quantity; but, on the whole, diminishes daily, and at last disappears; leaving the parts sound, and capable of performing all their functions.

'Sometimes, on taking the first doses of the cantharides, the discharge is increased in quantity; at others, diminished.

'The matter generally evinces inspissation before the inflammatory sensations disturb the patient.

'The attack of pain will be at very different times in different persons, after they begin to take the cantharides, though they individually take it in the same ratio, as most of the cases shew; for the medicine is at first prescribed, and afterwards continued to every one nearly in the same ratio.

'The quantity that some can take in a given time, without any sensible effect, is astonishingly great, compared with the smallness of the quantity which can alarmingly affect others.'

The

The principal point is the regulation of the inflammatory symptoms, which are to be checked by the discontinuance of the medicine, as soon as they have arrived at a due degree of intensity. If from inattention, or from any peculiarity in the constitution, the action should proceed so far as to produce strangury, or any other alarming symptom, the author advises the application of warm fomentations to the pubes, together with the liberal use of cathartics and diluents. It also appears, from some experiments that were made on dogs, that camphor has a specific effect in diminishing the operation of cantharides.

Part II. of the work, which treats on leucorrhœa, is very similar in its contents to those which have already been laid before the reader. This disease not only resembles gleet in its symptoms, but like it is extremely uncertain in its cure. The cantharides, however, given as in the other complaint, fortunately produce the same good effects; so as to enable Mr. Roberton to state, as the result of his practice, that he has 'tried this method of cure, in a great number of cases of leucorrhœa, with invariable success. In some of them, a few weeks, or months, after giving over the use of the cantharides, the discharge returned; but it was always again removed by the same remedy, and the cure completed.'

The benefit derived from the internal use of cantharides, in the treatment of obstinate sores, is not so obvious and decisive as in the diseases already mentioned. Mr. R. gives at full length the account of five cases; and it appears that some advantage may have been gained by the remedy. We think that practitioners will do well to bear in mind this medicine, as a resource in those obstinate cases which so frequently baffle all other modes of treatment.

Altogether, we consider Mr. Roberton's work as deserving of attention, since it contains some valuable information on a subject immediately applicable to practice: but we must caution our readers not to be repelled by the style of the performance; which is generally coarse, and sometimes even vulgar. The remarks on Mr. Abernethy are absolutely disgusting.

Bos.

ART. X. *Contemplation*, a Poem; with Tales, and other poetical Compositions. By John Penwarne. 12mo. pp. 217. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co.

AFTER having laboured for some time, without effect, to produce a witty allusion from the mines of Cornwall to the *leaden* wings of contemplation, and afterward revolving in our

mind a comparison between the atmosphere of this author's genius and that of the damp unwholesome regions in which he appears to have passed the greatest part of his life, we find ourselves (probably influenced by the stupifying opiate with which he has so profusely drenched us) obliged to give up the attempt; and we shall now only inform our readers, in plain terms, what they are to expect from the volume before us. 'Contemplation' is a poem in blank verse, divided into four cantos, and is opened by 'an Address to Contemplation':

> 'Come thou *who* with *immortal flight* untir'd
> Canst range the universe—at *whose* command
> DARKNESS retires—and *to thy* magic touch
> NATURE withdraws her adamantine bars;'—

The *Argument* then proceeds:—'Mounts-bay in Cornwall —allusion to the early commerce of Britain with Tyre, Sidon, and Phœnicia—to the conquest of Jamaica by the Spaniards—COLUMBUS, PIZARRO, and CORTEZ—Yellow fever,' &c. which latter is personified in these sublime and resounding verses:

> 'But luckless *thou*, Columbus, *felt* their ire
> Whose crimes, on thy new world entail'd a curse,
> Impos'd by wrath divine,—for ever just!
> And Europe's sons, still shrink beneath the scourge
> Of FEVER pestilent—who annual stalks
> The groaning land—her dire contagious breath
> Poisons the stagnant air—with hollow eye
> And jaundic'd, haggard mein, she dreadful scowls:
> Her giant arm, DESTRUCTION's besom wields,
> With which the vengeful FIEND oft daily sweeps
> A thousand victims to the yawning grave.'

The image of Destruction sweeping with its besom would have acquired immortal credit for Mr. John Penwarne, if it had been original. By the way, he is remarkably daring in the prosopopœia—

> 'In vain sweet HOPE would cheer
> His sinking heart, while meagre FAMINE scowls
> And DESOLATION mocks the vain attempt.' p. 14.

> 'BENEVOLENCE conducts the numerous fleet;
> At her command pale WANT and FAMINE fly,
> And INDUSTRY again her cheerful front
> Uprears,' &c. p. 15.

All the poetic horrors of a hurricane next ensue, during which an unhappy planter loses his wife and children, we know not how, and finds them again, we know not why. Mr. P. then

P. then kindly sits down in the second canto to tell us a tale, of 'William and Mary:' but this story, if story it can be called, is as old as the names of its actors, and is not varied for the better under Mr. P.'s management.

Canto the third introduces us to the Pilchard fishery (a most poetical subject) and the mines.—Here Mr. P. accounts for his propensity towards the prosopopœia, by making us acquainted with a fact which we did not know before, that the Cornish miners are in the habit of using this figure in their common conversation, nay in their very soliloquies. We will venture to assert that no labourer in any other province of England, or department of trade, would *think* or speak in such language as the following:

> 'But most he' (the miner) 'dreads to pass the lonely spot,
> The busy scene of mining once—in times
> Long pass'd away—where LABOUR daily toil'd
> Cheer'd by the jocund song and merry glee:
> "Those heaps"—he sighs—"where DESOLATION sits,
> "Were rais'd by hands which many rolling years
> "Have moulder'd into dust—the head which framed
> "Yon engine vast—has long since ceased to think."

The fourth canto bewilders us in its magnificent confusion: —'*Carnbrê hill* — Druids —Ocean — *Bellerium*—*Trafalgar*—*Lord Nelson*—*Buenos Ayres*—Country of *Liones*—*Cassiterides*—Contemplation of the Heavens—*Moon*;' as to which last, Mr. P. seems to have been favoured with a degree of perception far above what has been granted to the first of our astronomers, when he sings

> 'No burning rays by medium dense conveyed
> Scorch *her green vallies*, or *imbrown* her hills,'

and informs us elsewhere that her face

> 'Ever smiling shows
> A sweet variety of hill and dale,
> Of *spreading lakes*, and *seas*, and *rivers clear*,
> Of *verdant plains*, and mountains *cloath'd with wood*;')

and hence, very naturally, *Contemplation* leads him to the *Sun*, with which the poem concludes.

Of the sublimity of Mr. P.'s imagination, we have already given some instances; and we select only one more, from his Address to Contemplation in canto the first:

> 'The rushing Comet is *a creeping worm*
> Compared with thee.'

The musical structure of his verses and the purity of his language will be apparent from a few quotations:

'Thou

'Thou *reach'st* the Sun, and to this nether world
Return'st, outstripping ev'n the beams of light.' p. 4.

'Shall *wake* the sleeping zephyrs *up* to fill
Her swelling sails.' p. 7.

'And wrathful arm'd with *fire*, howl along.' p. 11.

'Re-bellowing rush impetuous and sweep.' p. 12.

'A complicated scene of horror *glooms*.' p. 13.

'But that thy maniac voice *not Reason guides*.' p. 15.

'And lisping numbers flow'd of poesy (read *posy*) sweet.' p. 21.

'At length the tidings came that *to*ward home
He soon would bend his course,' &c.

'As *erst* in *former* days,' &c. p. 30.

There would be no end of multiplying examples. We cannot advise Mr. Penwarne to continue his walks in the regions of Contemplation.—His other poems do not appear to deserve particular notice. 'Tregeagle' is a tale of terror, and like other tales of terror. His witty stories are told in imitation of Peter Pindar, and are like his in every respect but that they want point. The best joke that we have been able to find in them is the name of the Cornish miner, 'Thomas Triggyniggy.'—'Gratitude, or the Farmer and his Ass,' is a pretty simple fable, and not ill told. It is the only piece in the collection to which we are able to afford the slightest portion of praise.

Meri.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For SEPTEMBER, 1808.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 11. *Poetical Tales*, founded on Facts. By M. Savory. 12mo. pp. 148. 4s. Boards. Darton and Harvey.

As the author of this little volume urges the privilege of youth and inexperience against the severity of criticism, we will do him the justice to lay before the public the form and substance of the plea which he has presented:

'If the contents of this volume should be deemed worthy of candid and liberal criticism, remarks of that kind will both instruct and oblige the author, who has neither the advantage of a superiour education, nor the experience of many years:

'Go

'Go little bark, the world's dread ocean brave,
The winds of censure, and opinion's wave;
Secure, on that expanded deep to find
Some breeze propitious, and some pilot kind:
Some, who will deem thy course not wholly vain,
And bid thee speed, thus launched upon the main;
Some who will view thy stores by truth's bright ray,
And counsel what to keep, what cast away:
Who, midst opposing gales, thy helm shall guide,
While buoyant on the wave—obedient to the tide.'

We cannot, however, admit this species of excuse for error and negligence, especially since so many juvenile authors rely on it in this age of premature genius: but if Mr. Savory be intitled (which from the whole tenor of his poetry we do not doubt) to the full extent of that allowance which it is consistent with our duty to make, we must express our regret that he has ventured so early into the world, and has exposed to the danger of a blight those talents which, if properly nursed and kept under shelter, might produce fruits deserving the pains of cultivation. We shall not invidiously call the public attention to defects from which the author does not pretend to be exempt, and which the experience of a few years will place in proper light before him: but, earnestly advising him not to publish again before that stock of experience is added to his present judgment, we shall extract the first stanzas of the first tale, (as fair a specimen as it is in our power to produce,) in order to prove to him that we can perceive his merits, and that we hope, on some *future* occasion, to pay them a more cordial tribute of praise:

'On yon tall rock's projecting side,
See where the stripling bends his way,
To hang with rapture o'er the tide,
And tune a sweetly rustic lay.

'Say, what in sportive youth can move
To dwell on nature's varied hue,
What bids his bosom glow with love
And bathes his azure eye in dew:

'What bids him hail the matin strain,
As morn's first blush illumes the vale;
And wake at midnight hour again,
To listen to the nightingale?

'O genius! 'twas thy strong controul,
As o'er his cradle from on high
Thou wav'd thy magnet o'er his soul,
And on his lips breath'd harmony.

'Thy magic touch bade fancy rove,
As mind its early charms displayed;
Bade Shakespeare every passion move,
And Homer on his pillow laid.

'Thou

'Thou gav'st that fine perceptive sense,
Which throws o'er ev'ry scene its charm;
To joy, will brighter joy dispense,
To grief, more exquisite alarm.

'Ah dang'rous gift! where bliss appears
But as the morn's first vivid ray,
And grief her mournful aspect rears
Through the long, ling'ring, weary day

'Yet Siren Genius! still to thee
Thy captive pours the grateful strain,
To thee he bends the willing knee,
With all thy joys, with all thy pain.

'Would Alwin that pure sense forego
In tranquil apathy to rove?
"Ah! no," he cries, "with all thy woe,
O stay and charm me with thy love!" Meri.

Art. 12. *Lyric and other Poems*, by Laura Sophia Temple. Crown 8vo. pp. 145. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1808.

This fair poetess is not yet tired of pouring out the delicate overflowings of her too susceptible heart in softly murmuring numbers, and strewing the devious paths of desultory life with the imperishable blossoms of Genius produced by Fancy in her gayest and her saddest hours. In examining the texture of so exquisitely delicate and fragile a floweret as that which she has now presented to our inspection, we would fain imitate the tender touch of those soft aerial beings, who fan with their silken wings the crimson buds of hope, and by their benign influence expand the blushing beauties which recede and close up at the approach of a ruder finger. Conscious, however, of the habitual coarseness of our nature, we resign the hopeless endeavour to disguise it under the gossamery habit of the sylphid, Affectation: but shrink not from us, too lovely plant, nor fear our boisterous approach! Let thy gentle mistress assume our office, and, in words more soothing than the western breeze that blows on a bank of violets, stealing and giving odour, describe thy nature and thy properties!

'To retrace (exclaims Miss T.) the vanished forms of past existence—to retain the impression of those which yet compose the essence and enchantment of the present being,—is surely the dearest and most affecting of our pensive pleasures; nor can there be imagined one so sacred to sensibility as that which feeds the melancholy luxury of the muse, when she seeks with tender care to bind up and collect the scattered flowers of memory, to revive the faded and reanimate the dead, to place beyond the injury of time, and to command a partial immortality. A fragment, however broken—a dubious hint—an almost imperceptible touch—may serve to point out the objects of former happiness. Dull indeed must be the eye that dwells with indifference on the scenes of early attachment—that beholds even in fancy the spot where hope and expectation first put forth their vernal blossoms—where once dwelt excellence, affection, and instruction,—where virtue lifted

up

up the hand and heart ere the wing of devotion could yet ascend: dull indeed must be the eye that can behold these memorials, and behold them without emotion. The following pages contain to me these memorials,—they are then to me a precious property, for they will give me back my joys without tumult, and my griefs without poignancy. Let not philosophy contemn their humble designation; admonition never comes with such pathetic energy as when it tells us of our losses,—what we have fatally missed by foolishly neglecting fleeting opportunity: retrospection is beneficial—and no moral lesson is perhaps more useful than that which teaches best the evanescent nature of all we ever did or ever can possess.'

We must confess that, on reading the foregoing passage, it appeared to our rude comprehension that all the ends proposed by Miss Temple, in the present publication, would have been answered (provided that she can read her own writing,) by an elegant MS. volume bound in Morocco, with gilt leaves and glossy vellum paper;—and that every one of these poems would have served 'to retrace the vanished forms of past existence' equally well if kept in her own desk, and preserved for her private perusal, as now that they are ushered into the world with the pleasing types of Mr. Holl at the Mirror printing-office, Bristol. It is more than probable, however, that we do not understand these matters. As for the rest, if she would fairly and frankly confess that her motives for publishing are the same with those which influence the generality of writers,—the hope of lucre or the love of fame,—we should willingly allow that many volumes come daily before our eyes which are much less calculated to answer either of those honest objects than this. Our taste is, perhaps, not quite refined enough to relish as we ought the sweet effusions of sensibility which constitute its prevailing charm: but many minds are framed in a softer mould than ours; and such will doubtless give to the most tender delicate children of her fancy the meed of "Honour due." *We* can only say that we like her *Poetry* better than her *Prose*, because we can in general understand it better; and we will now select from the former a specimen, the subject and style of which are more agreeable to us than those of most of her remaining productions:

'The Scattering of the Rose *.

'A Persian Tale.

Ye Persian youths who warmly sigh
At glance of Beauty's rolling eye;
Ye Persian youths, who love the vine,
Who quaff the blood of gen'rous wine;
O! listen while your poet's lays
Relate the bliss of golden days!
O listen while his numbers sing
The scattering of the Rose of Spring.

'* An eastern custom (noticed by Mr. Francklin, in his Persian Tour, under the name of Gulreazee,) of gathering the first rose of Spring, and strewing its leaves in the apartment.'

'Twas

'Twas in the month when od'rous fl w'rs,
First ope' their eyes in Persian bow'rs,
When stately pines their green heads rear,
And welcome in the crimson year;
'Twas then I hasten'd to the plain,
And join'd the young and festive train,
That gather'd round to gaily sing
The scattering of the Rose of Spring.

'There Beauty reign'd—her wiles were seen
In many a soft voluptuous mien;
The vermeil cheek, the eye of fire,
The sunny smile awoke desire;
There crisped ringlets wav'd to deck
The snow of many a well turn'd neck,
For choicest maidens came to sing
The scattering of the Rose of Spring.

'Fair were the forms, but one more bright
Than all the rest that met my sight—
Before mine eyes she graceful stole
In virgin modesty of soul.
I gaz'd! – she droop'd her bashfull head,
While orient blushes glanc'd and fled:
For pure was she that came to sing
The scattering of the Rose of Spring.

'I led my charmer from the throng,
And passion dwelt upon my tongue,
She heard me – and her od'rous sigh
Breath'd forth a faint, but kind reply—
I won the maid of polish'd brow!
To her I pledg'd my tend'rest vow,
And blessed the hour I went to sing
The scattering of the Rose of Spring.' **Meri.**

Art. 13 *The Rural Enthusiast*, and other Poems, by Mrs. M. H. Hay. Crown 8vo. pp. 168. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

In the leading poem of the volume, this lady has brought together many of the most interesting appearances assumed by nature in the country, and has described them generally in clear language and tolerably easy verse, but, we think, without any indications of enthusiastic rapture. We cannot much applaud the structure of the stanza which is here, as far as we know, employed for the first time; and in which the addition of a rhymeless line, to a verse that would have been complete without it, produces a cumbrous and unpleasing effect. Our readers shall judge whether this innovation be an improvement:

'Those widely stretching fertile lands
No rational pleasure brings;
The purse-proud steward there commands,
And the poor tenant wrings

Too

Too often with heart rending woe,
When forced the comforts to forego,
His family had claimed.'

We do not select this stanza as by any means a favourable specimen of the general execution of the poem, but for the purpose of pointing out a fault in grammar which too often occurs, and another in metre, of which description Mrs. Hay has committed but few, Some of the minor poems, particularly the story of Elwin and Ellen, are not devoid of interest. Den.

Art. 14. *Attempts at Poetry*; or Trifles in verse. By Ebn Osn. of Pentonville. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Greenland and Norris. 1807.

In considering the modesty of this writer, we feel some regret on pronouncing that his *attempts* have failed, and that his *trifles in verse* are not *Poetry*. J.Man. jr.

Art. 15. *The Imperial Conspirator overthrown*; or Spanish Poison for Subjugation The last Act of a long Tragedy. A Serio-burlesque Performance. By P. H. Edwards, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Hughes. 1808.

How unpleasant is it for us to be under the necessity of reporting that Mr. Edwards' merits as an author are not in proportion to his patriotic zeal! We are sorry, on examining his performance, to find this to be the case; especially after the modesty displayed in the preface. His composition is not published (he says) 'as worthy of praise,' but as being in perfect unison with the general feeling of abhorrence against Bonaparte for his atrocities: but, if it be not worthy of praise, is it likely to produce the desired effect? If the drama be not well managed, shall we not be disgusted with the author and be unseduced by his fiction? Long dialogues between Napoleon and Demons are poor specimens of the serio-burlesque; and the finale of the Corsican blowing his own brains out, that the Devil may get possession of him, expresses the wish rather than displays the invention of the author. If, however, we cannot applaud this dramatic attempt, we regard, with Mr. E., 'the event in Spain as a warning voice to all Governments to conciliate the people as their truest friend;' and we sincerely hope that the insidious invader of Spanish Independence will meet the punishment due to his high crimes. Mo.y.

Art. 16. *The Eagle's Masque.* By Tom Tit. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Mawman.

A whimsical idea may be spun out till it loses its effect. The "Peacock at Home," from its novelty and humour, was greatly admired: but the subject did not admit of amplification; and a repetition of fashionable bird intercourse in the Eagle's Masque is rather tiresome than amusing, though Tom Tit tries to be comical, and to display his knowlege of the feathered race. Do

Art. 17. *The Shipwreck of St. Paul.* A Seatonian Prize Poem. By the Rev. Charles James Hoare, A. M., Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, &c. 4to. 2s. Hatchard. 1808.

A poet, if left to himself, would not perhaps have exercised his genius on *the Shipwreck of St. Paul:* but when that event is proposed as the subject of a prize poem, he manages it as well as he can. In this light we view the present attempt of Mr. Hoare; who strives to make the heavens frown and the billows roar in verse, till the bark which contained the Apostle of the Gentiles, after having been driven up and down in Adria by a tempest, is wrecked on the island of Malta. As for fiction, it is inadmissible: but the poet endeavours to compensate for its absence by copious reflections on the mysteries of Providence. To his rhimes he is not so attentive as to his piety, or we should not have seen *gods* rhiming to *clouds*, and *wake* to *break*. All that immediately relates to the shipwreck occurs in the following lines:

'The morn arrives—tall Malta's towering steep
Bursts full to view, and darkens all the deep.
They shout! they rush! and soon the vessel steer
Where parting rocks disclose a shelter near:
Each glist'ning eye the glad arrival hails—
But fails as soon, each op'ning prospect fails—
Lo! eddying tides now thick around them play,
And fierce contending currents force their way.
Whirl'd round and round, the giddy vessel flies
O'er rock, o'er surf, then sudden bulging lies
A hopeless wreck: unnumber'd fragments strow
The waves; and planks and men promiscuous flow.
Dire was the shriek: but soon, the danger o'er,
Each seiz'd his plank, and reach'd the destin'd shore.
Safe mid the rest the faithful Hero lay,
And hov'ring angels watch'd his boist'rous way.'

An address to the faithful succeeds; and the poem concludes with an animated prayer in behalf of the preacher who visits distant lands to disseminate Gospel truth.

Mo-y.

Art. 18. *Mr. William Shakespeare's Comedies, Histories, and Tragedies.* Published according to the true Originall Copies. London Printed by Isaac Jaggard, and Edward Blount, 1623. Folio. 5l. 5s Boards. Reprinted for Johnson, &c. 1803.

The original first folio edition of Shakspeare's works, edited by the players Heminge and Condell, and "printed at the charges of W. Jaggard, Edward Blount, J. Smithweeke, and W. Aspley, 1623," having become extremely scarce, and copies of it, whenever offered for sale, obtaining exorbitantly high prices,* it has been thought proper to attempt a *fac simile* of this much esteemed folio. No memorandum at the beginning nor note at the end informs us by whom this work has been undertaken; and nothing is added

* The copy at the sale of the Library of Mr. John Watson Reed, in 1790, was sold for 35l. 14s. while an equally good copy of the second folio fetched only 4l.

to

to this copy, excepting what the law requires, viz. the name of the modern Printer. It is left entirely to speak for itself. By the water-mark *Shakespeare* in every sheet of the volume, it is evident that the paper was manufactured expressly for this undertaking; and no pains nor expence appear to have been spared to render the imitation before us creditable to those who have superintended its execution. Indeed, in paper, type, and size, it surpasses the Folio by Jaggard and Blount, and so far it is not properly a *fac simile* It also differs from its prototype in the omission of the *flower ornaments* which were fashionable in the reign of James I.: but the portrait of our immortal bard is copied in the title page, as are the typographical errors † and omissions which occur in the several plays. The epigram, however, of Hugh Holland, "Upon the Lines and Life of the famous Scenicke Poet, Master William Shakespeare," is misplaced

As far as we have had leisure to examine and compare the pages, we have found that great care has been taken to preserve the original orthography, and to some persons this copy will be as valuable as the original; though the true antiquary will regard it as a counterfeit, will scarcely deign to bestow on it any notice, and will prefer the coarse sheets of the true first Folio to the hot-pressed pages of the modern volume. **Mo.y.**

Art. 19. *The Dramatic and Poetical Works of the late Lieutenant General John Burgoyne*, to which *is* prefixed memoirs of the Author. Embellished with Copper-plates. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Scatcherd and Co. &c. 1808.

A very neat edition of the various offerings to the Muses, which were presented by an accomplished gentleman and a brave and skilful officer. The volumes contain the dramas of the *Maid of the Oaks*, *the Lord of the Manor*, *the Heiress*, *Richard Cœur de Lion*; *an Irregular Ode for Music by the Rev. Dr. P *********, and the *Westminster* Guide, originally contributed to the celebrated *Probationary Odes*; and a few epilogues, &c.—A concise sketch of General Burgoyne's life is prefixed, in which justice is rendered to his talents as a writer, an orator, and a soldier; and the unfortunate affair at Saratoga is attributed to imperious circumstances, not to any negligence or deficiency on the part of the General. Some partiality, however, is rather apparent in this anonymous tribute. It is remarkable that neither the time nor the place of General B.'s birth is known, and that even his parentage is doubtful; it being merely a matter of report that he was the natural son of Lord Bingley, who died in 1774. He married a daughter of the Earl of Derby, and left no issue. **G.2.**

Art. 20. *Ella Rosenberg:* a Melo-Drama. In Two Acts. By James Kenney. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Co

Whatever interest may have been excited by this piece, when aided

† Even where the paging is omitted, as in the play of Troylus and Cressida, or where the figures are transposed, as in the last page.

by music and adorned by the decorations of the theatre, we are obliged to say that, without these helps, it is flat and insipid. O.

Art. 21. *Time's a Tell-tale:* a Comedy, in Five Acts. By Henry Siddons. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

This drama is, we are told, partly formed on a story of M. Marmontel *.—'Blandford and Coraly appearing two very interesting characters;' and so they are in the French Tale: but in the play before us, the author, by attempting to combine the character of Benedict with that of Blandford, has completely thrown aside all the tender beauties of Marmontel, while he has substituted nothing to remind us of the wit of Shakspeare.—Of the other characters, little needs be said, except that old Hardacre is the best.—We perfectly agree, however, in the statement that 'the Comedy is written in the spirit of a man, anxious to serve the cause of truth;' and both the design and the effort are creditable to the author. O.

Art. 22. *The Guardians*; or the Man of my Choice. A Comedy, in Five Acts. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

What should have induced the author to print this play ('a work written in FIVE DAYS') we are at a loss to imagine. He cannot be offended with us, however, if we advise him to take at least FIVE YEARS to complete his next essay:—that period being, as he will recollect, shorter by four years than the time so judiciously prescribed by the Roman Poet. O.

Art. 23. *Two Faces under a Hood:* a Comic Opera. In Three Acts. By T. Dibdin. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Appleyards.

If this little drama be not intitled to any high commendation, yet it possesses sprightliness and vivacity; and the structure of the songs seems well adapted to the purposes of the composer. O.

Art. 24. *Antiquity, a Farce*, in Two Acts. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Chapple.

This is a very slight little piece, yet it has some merit. The object of it is to detach, by ridicule, a young man from the folly of despising every thing that is modern, and of apeing the manners and customs of the fifteenth century. The scene in which, in the character of Falstaff, the hero meets his friends at a supper at the Boar's head, is by no means destitute of humour. O.

Art. 25. *Faulkener:* a Tragedy. By Wm. Godwin. 8vo. 2s. 6d. R. Phillips.

We have not derived the pleasure that we expected from the perusal of this tragedy; which abounds with improbabilities and inconsistencies, and in which we are called to witness scenes of bloodshed and misery, without feeling much of either horror or distress. O.

NOVEL.

Art. 26. *The Spaniard;* or the Pride of Birth. A Tale. By M. Rymer. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Robinson.

We have here a lively and well connected narrative, abounding

* "Friendship put to the Test."

with

with interesting situations. Mr. Rymer's style is simple and unaffected, though by no means free from inaccuracies: but his violation of Spanish costume is still less pardonable. The very names of some of his characters are exotics, and he has even attempted to transplant a whole street (Strada di Toledo) from Naples to Madrid. J.Man.q.j.

POLITICS.

Art. 27. *A Sketch of the Causes and Consequences of the late Emigration to the Brazils*. By Ralph Rylance, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Art. 28. *Vindiciæ Lusitanæ*, or an Answer to a Pamphlet entitled "the Causes and Consequences of the late Emigration to the Brazils." By Edward James Lingham, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Budd.

Our eventful æra has produced nothing more *unique* than the emigration of Royalty from the old to the new world; and the causes and consequences of this event, especially the latter, are points which naturally attract political discussion. Probably its immediate advantages will be over-calculated, and trading speculators will at first be disappointed: but the measure, supposing the government of *New Portugal* to be directed by true wisdom, cannot fail of creating a great kingdom in South America, and ultimately of producing effects highly momentous to the political and commercial interests of mankind. Will the Prince Regent, however, in his new situation, adopt new principles, and act with that enlightened sagacity which the circumstances of his trans-atlantic empire so imperiously demand? If the account given by Mr. Rylance (is this a real name?) be correct, some ground for apprehension may be entertained on this head; particularly when we also take into our estimate the bigotry and intolerance of the Portuguese people. Though it is more likely that the Prince emigrated from a fear of Bonaparte, (and the captivity of the Royal Family of Spain proves the fate which awaited him if he had not fled,) than with his connivance; and though we cannot suspect him of playing the part which Mr. R. supposes, notwithstanding that some of his conduct towards us was a little suspicious; we do not see reason for running to the other extreme, and for appreciating his character so highly as Mr. Lingham has done. If Mr. R. may be unwarranted in his degrading account of the intellect of this Prince, Mr. L. is equally unjustified when he states that 'no vacillation ever took place in his mind.' Indeed, while the government of Portugal had doubts with regard to the part which we should take in the measure of its removal to the Brazils, the Regent could not have completely satisfied his mind respecting it.

Of these two pamphlets, the first appears to us to be the best written, and to contain much valuable discussion, not however untinctured with the spirit of party. The author of the latter is more occupied in vindicating the reputation of the Prince Regent, than in weighing the consequences of his emigration; and he seems to be averse to our interference, in any shape, with his new government. When Mr. R. lays it down as a principle that, both with

States and Individuals, justice is wisdom, he cannot mean that we should coerce the Brazilian King to abolish the Slave-Trade: but merely that we should recommend it as a step which sound policy demands. If, as Mr. L. asserts, the Inquisition was never established in the Brazils, its influence at least has extended to this Portuguese colony; and the people perhaps want some instruction on the political value of religious liberty, especially to a young state. Mo.

Art 29. *The Dawn of Liberty on the Continent of Europe*: or the Struggle of the Spanish Patriots for the Emancipation of their Country. By J. Agg. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co, &c. 1808.

Sooner or later, tyranny and oppression find a powerful re-action; and the unfeeling usurper discovers, in those whom he attempts to crush as slaves, a spirit of opposition which the tactics of regular armies cannot repress, and which instantly annihilates all his proud schemes of aggrandizement. The momentum of a great people, set in motion by one all-pervading principle, and directed to one point, is irresistible. Spain at this time presents a spectacle of this kind; and all the friends of liberty and national independence must hail the magnanimous efforts of this high spirited nation, to throw from their necks the yoke which the present ruler of France had so insidiously prepared for them. In a scheme, the atrocity of which can only be surpassed by its folly, he has hitherto been defeated; and if the Spaniards persevere with the prudence, fortitude, and unanimity which have so brilliantly distinguished the commencement of their struggle, they will not only secure their own freedom, resuscitate their faded glory, and raise themselves to eminent consequence among the nations of Europe, but they may originate a counteraction against Bonaparte, which may give a new turn to affairs, and wrest from France its over-grown and intolerable domination on the Continent. Mr. Agg, with many others, anticipates these consequences. In unison with the whole British Nation, he rejoices in the present spirit of the Spaniards, wishes them complete success, is persuaded that by their victories other states will be roused, and that Bonaparte will be placed in a situation equally novel and dangerous. He congratulates his countrymen on the prompt and liberal assistance which has been rendered by our government to the Spanish patriots; as reflecting honour on ourselves, and as fraught with the most important political advantages. – *On the spur of the occasion*, these reflections have been hastily written; and, as adapted to the feelings and sentiments of the moment, they will doubtless prove acceptable.

D.o

Art. 30. *The Claims of the Roman Catholics constitutionally considered*, in a Letter to the Lord Bishop of Norwich: to which is added a Supplementary Note, on an Hypothesis advanced in the historical Work of Mr. Fox. By T. Baseley, M.A. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Faulder. 1808.

Correctness of statement is essential to correctness of argumentation, and in this point Mr. B. fails at the threshold. He says that 'a foolish, if not wicked, notion is abroad in the world, that all men

have a right to share in the government of the country where they live:' but we have not heard of this notion, whether foolish and wicked or not. The catholics and other dissenters do not maintain a right to share in the government, but a right to be considered as *eligible* to a share in it; which is a very different thing. Now if we regard the petition of the catholics as merely relating to their *eligibility* to public offices, we cannot see how their case differs from that of Catholics in Protestant countries abroad who have been employed in civil and military affairs, though Mr. B. endeavours to point out a dissimilarity. In both instances, the individuals employed are dismissable at the pleasure of the Prince or State into whose service they are taken. While retained by the Government, they make a part of it, but the Sovereign who appoints can also dismiss them. As far as elegibility to seats in Parliament is concerned, it should be observed that catholics cannot be formidable in the legislature while their number is small; any more than that of other dissenters, who are safely admitted into both houses. The Coronation-Oath binds the King to maintain the Protestant Religion. Granted: but are penal statutes and civil disqualifications necessary to this maintenance? Is it creditable to the Protestant Religion of our country to offer such a sentiment? Does our Church, as by law established, actually stand in need of such dishonourable props? The apprehensions of Mr. B. and of other writers on his side of the question, we trust, are groundless; and in a political point of view it is very certain that the empire is consolidated and strengthened by enabling his Majesty to avail himself of the abilities and loyalty of *all* his loving subjects. By such a comprehensive measure, disaffection will be cured; subjects of all sects will be *made loving*; the bundle of twigs, which civil disabilities separate, will be closely united; and the interest of the Prince and of his people will be one. It has been remarked that, by the Toleration Act, the Dissenting Church becomes in fact an Establishment, but it is an Establishment without an endowment; and the rich and patronized Church has nothing to fear from the poor and undignified state of its unendowed sister. Let the Established Church be kept on this *vantage ground*, and it needs not in our judgment to ask for disqualifying statutes for its farther protection. Supposing the Tests to be removed, is it probable that 'the *majority* of the Senate and of the Privy Council should be Catholics?' Allowing Catholics to be solicitous of power, are Protestants behind-hand in this respect? Admitting that the former have a glowing zeal for proselytism; if the latter have the best of the argument, they surely have no cause to be alarmed in this enlightened age. Principles founded on reason and scripture are in no perilous situation, though 'left at the mercy of times, seasons, and opinions;' for is not Christianity herself placed in this very predicament? *Opinionum commenta delet dies: judicia* veritatis *confirmat.*

Mr. B. thinks that the mighty storms, which rage around us, ought for the present to have restrained the Catholic claimants from preferring their petition: but they will reply that they wish to throw in their aid in repelling the common enemy, and to be permitted in the hour of danger to rally round the throne. *Their all* is

at stake as well as that of the Protestants; they share in the burdens of taxation; and they have a right also, they ~~think~~ apprehend, to share, if their Sovereign think fit, in the honour of being employed by him. They do not declare, as Mr. B makes them do, 'that their loyalty must be purchased:' but they wish to have it cherished, and the irritation under which it labours removed.

As a strenuous advocate for our Established Church, this author represents its dangers from popery in a most alarming point of view: but he appears to us to contemplate them through a magnifying glass; while he does not seem aware of the dangers which may accrue from continuing to fetter the members of this church with existing disabilities. In a discussion of the catholic claims, it is irrelevant to examine their religious tenets; Mr. B. might therefore have spared himself this trouble: but, in proportion to the disagreement of these tenets with scripture, is the improbability of their propagation among us. On the whole, we cannot be roused by the alarms nor be convinced by the reasoning contained in this pamphlet; though we are ready to admit the ingenuity of the writer in supporting his side of the question.

The object of Mr Baseley, in his supplementary note, is to combat the position maintained in Mr. Fox's historical fragment, viz. "that the establishment of popery was considered as a remote contingency" by James II., and that "his primary object was to render himself independent of Parliament;" and also to vindicate the Church of England against those strictures on her conduct which this work contains. Respecting the first point, it is a matter of no great consequence. Popery and arbitrary power were alike the passion of James; and the projects for promoting both, as Rapin says, "kept equal pace in his mind." As to the charge against the Church of England, of having been servile to the absolute views of James, it is absurd to attempt to repel it; for in the beginning of his reign non-resistance and passive obedience were avowed as *the doctrine of the Church of England*; and though her members afterward made a noble struggle against his encroachments, and thus in some measure retrieved their character, it cannot be said that their contest was for the civil liberties of the people.

Moy.

Art. 31. *Catholic Principles of Allegiance illustrated.* By the Rev. Thomas Gillow. 8vo. pp. 104. 2s. 6d. Keating. 1807.

This tract has been written for the laudable purpose of promoting a mutual good understanding among Christians: but, though Mr. Gillow's piety and loyalty are conspicuous in all his pages, he does not claim equal praise on the score of enlarged and liberal views. He successfully assails protestant prejudices, but discovers an equal degree of catholic bias. We are friendly to the civil claims of the catholics, and are satisfied as to the merits of our contemporaries of that communion: but we cannot consent to falsify history in order to strengthen their case. We admit the virtues of our catholic ancestors, and our great obligations to them: but, while we recollect Becket, we cannot allow that civil disturbances on account of religion were unknown among us till Wickliff arose; nor can we agree with Mr. Gillow

Gillow that distractions alone were the consequences of the separation of England from Rome. We justify not the persecutions of Elizabeth: but we do not forget the provocations; and it indicates no great impartiality to inveigh against that princess, and overlook the cruelties of Mary. If the divines of Rheims inculcated loyalty, what shall we say to the excommunication of Elizabeth by Paul II.; and if we blush over the persecutions with which our protestant ancestors are chargeable, is it for the Catholic to reproach us with them? Mr. Gillow has too much of the spirit of party to be a successful advocate in the cause of emancipation, and is too zealous a Romanist to remove protestant prepossessions. Jo.

Art. 32. *Remarks suggested by the perusal of a Pamphlet intitled, "Britain independent of Commerce."* By P. Williams, Esq. 8vo. pp. 38. 2s. Tipper. 1808.

Another squib called forth by the extravagant fancies of Mr. Spence. The author appears to be duly impressed with the value of commerce; for which he may probably be indebted to a taste of its sweets:—a conjecture which the style of the tract corroborates, notwithstanding the scraps of Latin interspersed through it. Mr. W. does not enter much into first principles, but states in an easy and striking manner the practical effects of commerce, and effectually exposes the miserable conceits which Mr. Spence has attempted to palm on an enlightened age; an age, too, which has the deepest interest in not being duped by his perversions and misrepresentations. Jo.

Art. 33. *A Sketch of the State of Ireland, past and present.* 8vo. pp. 64. 2s. Carpenter. 1808.

Rigid political virtue is claimed by this writer; who is a friend to Catholic emancipation, to the union of parties in Ireland, and to the amelioration of the country, and at the same time passes severe censures on the late administration. He commends their dismissal by the crown, and mentions with approbation the elections in which their partisans were foiled. He must of course include the means which were used to defeat them at these elections, the war-hoop of persecution, the banners of intolerance, and the insignia of bigotry, which were adopted on that ever memorable and disgraceful occasion. How these are displays of virtue, or even of consistency, we are at a loss to discover. Not a particle of diapprobation is expressed, by this advocate for catholic emancipation, against the member for Northampton; who proclaimed himself the saviour of the church of England, because he raised the outcry against that measure, which led to the disgraceful scenes of the summer of 1807, and which the growing light of the times only prevented from rivalling those of 1780. If this be not stoical virtue, it is perhaps very much the virtue of the day. Jo.

Art. 34. *The Economists refuted*; or an Inquiry into the Nature and Extent of the Advantages derived from Trade; with Observations on the Epediency of making Peace with France. And an Appendix, discussing the Policy of prohibiting Corn in the Distilleries. By R. Torrens, Esq. 8vo. pp 108. 3s. Oddy. 1808.

We

We have in these pages a correct analysis of those doctrines of political economy, which bear on the paradoxes advanced by Mr. Spence. Though we have no objection to the author's views of his subject, we think that, by descending too much into minuteness, he has in some parts weakened his reasoning, and failed of precision. When he talks of commerce 'as occasioning the division of labour,' the proposition is narrower than the idea of the writer; which would be more correctly expressed by stating it to be the effect of commerce to increase production: a proposition which includes as well the proper employment of the soil and of materials, as the right application of human labour. The tract, however, on the whole is both able and instructive, and may be read with profit, though the delusions which it refutes have already lost their vogue.

Jo.

AFFAIRS OF INDIA.

Art. 35. *Christianity in India.* An Essay on the Duty, Means, and Consequences of introducing the Christian Religion among the Native Inhabitants of the British Dominions in the East. By J. W. Cunningham, A. M. late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 210. 5s. 6d. sewed. Hatchard, &c. 1808.

This gentleman is a most strenuous advocate for the plan of christianizing India. 'If (says he) there is an obligation upon Great Britain, generally, to communicate her religion where she can; if India is designed *ultimately* to receive this religion;—surely we are *now* peremptorily called upon to lay our Eastern spoils at the foot of the cross.' In this language, however, the critic recognizes more of oratory than of argument; and if, assuming the attitude of a dialectitian, he was resolved to oppose it, he would greatly embarrass Mr. C. He might deny, in the first place, that one nation has any obligation, *as a nation*, to communicate its religion to another; and he might deny, in the next place, the correctness of deducing a *present obligation* on us from a regard to the *ultimate* designs of Providence. We know not when "the fullness of time" for the conversion of India will be displayed: but if it be remote, which circumstances seem to indicate, it is not very logical to maintain that, because the Almighty means to effect this object *ultimately*, we ought, without waiting for the leadings of his Providence, to attempt it *now*; and, with all the miscalculating ardor of Crusaders, to 'lay our Eastern spoils at the foot of the cross.' By such enthusiasts as Mr. C., our caution in this case may be attributed to infidelity: but we can tell him that we read our Bible with as much satisfaction as he does; and that when its sacred pages instruct us, with reference to the enlargement of the kingdom of Christ, that "a little one shall become a thousand, and a small one a strong nation," it is added, "*I the Lord* will hasten it *in his time*;" or as Dr. Lowth renders it, "*I Jehovah, in due season, will hasten it.*" Let the writers, who would coerce the Hindoos to profess Christianity, declare what signs of this *due season* at present appear.

A view

A view is taken, in the first part of this essay, of the moral character and of the civil and religious institutions of the Hindoos, in order to shew how much they stand in need of the meliorating influence of the Gospel; the second enumerates the "means" of diffusing Christian knowlege in India, 'the chief of which consists in the distribution of the sacred Scriptures translated into the different dialects of India;' and the third and last part encourages to the use of these means by a display of the 'consequences' of this projected diffusion of Christian knowlege.

On the last two of these heads, the issue of this long controversy turns. No Christian will maintain that christianity is not preferable to the religion of Bramah: but the point to be discussed relates to the consequences of prematurely attempting to bring the Hindoos to adopt our opinion, and to the inadequacy of our present means of effecting the desired object. Mr. Cunningham seems reluctant to yield to prudential considerations, for he observes that 'if the line of *duty* is once marked out, no views of policy will drive a good man out of it:' but we are inclined to think that the policy or impolicy of the measure will affect our duty in all matters of this kind. If the attempt be very hazardous, and success extremely problematical, who will say that it is our duty to rush forwards regardless of consequences? Here the danger of the experiment, on which so much stress is laid by those who are best acquainted with India, is not sufficiently weighed; and we are led to reflect on the change which the introduction of christianity would operate on the physical and political state of the Hindoos as a people, without adverting to the ideas of the Hindoos respecting this boon which we are so solicitous of conferring on them. When they are made Christians, they will no doubt have christian habits: but their present habits and prejudices militate against their conversion; and should we not convulse India by the measures which Mr. C. proposes? "*There's the rub.*" **Mo-y.**

Art. 36. *The Dangers of British India from French Invasion and Missionary Establishments.* To which are added some Account of the Countries between the Caspian sea and the Ganges; a Narrative of the Revolutions which they have experienced subsequent to the Expedition of Alexander the Great; and a few Hints respecting the Defence of the British Frontiers in Hindostan. By a late Resident at Bhagulpore. 8vo. pp. 153. 5s. stitched. Black and Co. 1808.

Though objects which are desirable are not always practicable, yet individuals who are very enthusiastic rarely allow themselves, or even others, to make this distinction. The writer of the pamphlet before us, however, is not among those ardent *christianizers* who despise prudence, calculation, and danger. On the other hand, with a due zeal for the interests of religious truth, he combines those considerations of policy and risk which ought not to be left out of the argument. It is admitted, by one of the most strenuous preachers in favour of the measures pursued for the conversion of the Hindoos, that "christianity has been very gradually propagated;" and yet in the present instance, without waiting for those favourable opportunities which

which Providence in due time may afford us, we are required to hurry the Gospel into British India. The subject is neatly stated and ably argued in the pamphlet before us.

'The question (says the author) is not whether it would be of advantage to the natives of India to become christians; for on this there can be no manner of doubt; but whether they can be converted by human efforts, and whether it is our duty to make these efforts regardless of any national consequences that may arise from them?' A decided negative is given to the last of these interrogatories; and Messieurs Twining and Waring do not pronounce with more decision on the peril of the experiment than the present writer. 'The day on which (says he) the followers of Brama are seriously convinced that we have formed a design against their faith, or that we even intend to interfere with it, will, I am convinced, be the first day of real danger to the security of our Asiatic possessions.' From the very *discussion* of the subject he apprehends mischief, especially if the knowlege of it should reach India: but we trust that the perfect tolerance of our government in the East will counteract any impression, which an intimation of the existence of the controversy in Europe may have excited.

A knowlege of the Hindoos enables this late Resident among them to afford us a specimen of the manner in which they resist the arguments of Christians who endeavour to convert them:

'They present a formidable obstacle to the diffusion of the religion of the christian, which can only be overcome, if so, by analyzing the nature of Hindoo superstition, and by tracing its different stages: for until we can convince the Bramin that our system is the first in time, as well as the most perfect in precept, he will tell us that it is derived from his, and that the Shaster is the source from whence the christian faith has been drawn. Far from questioning the divine authority of the scriptures, or the divinity of Christ, he will say that we believe but a part of what he does, and that the deity might have been once incarnate in Judea as he had been often in India; that the Hindoo scriptures, as they were carried out of their own country, were altered to the local usages of others, and accommodated to the political views of their professors: and that, although we neglect ceremonies and profess the influence of moral precept, our external conduct implies a total negligence of visible adoration and gratitude to God, and the superiority of honor to religion.'

By adverting to the state of society among the Hindoos, we are farther enabled to account for the trifling success of the Missionaries:

'The repugnant habits of the Hindoo in private life render it impossible for a stranger to his faith, or an inferior in cast, to associate with him, and thus close one avenue by which instruction might be freely conveyed. The seclusion of the female sex from the eye and converse of mankind is another obstacle of no less magnitude. The English missionary cannot have access to the tables of the men, or to the apartments of the women: he must harangue them in the streets, or on the roads, when they are prosecuting their business, and have

no leisure to attend; or during the celebration of their festivals, where numbers, example, and the intoxication of the ceremony will arm every hand, and shut every ear, against him.'

If it be considered as an adviseable measure to disseminate translations of the scriptures, it is thought that it would be more prudent to employ the servants of the company than professed Missionaries; at present, however, this author deems it wisest, while the enemy threatens an invasion of India, to desist altogether from every act which may diminish the confidence of the people of Hindostan.

Having thus introduced the mention of Bonaparte's project respecting the invasion of our Asiatic possessions, the late Resident proceeds to discuss its practicability. After having traced the route over land, which must be taken by the French and Russian armies, he denominates the enterprize *crude*, but advises us not to despise it. He supposes that this force will proceed by the Black and the Caspian seas; and the distance from Astrabad, on the south-east extremity of the latter, to the town of Attock on the Indus, is in a direct line 1130 miles, and from Attock to Delhi 587, making in all 1717; or, allowing for the deviation of roads, about 2200 miles. Sketches of the expeditions of Alexander, and of the Mohammedan conquerors of India, are given, to shew the obstacles which oppose an invading army. Advice is also afforded as to the alliances which we should make, and the stations which we should assume, in order to check and defeat the purposes of the enemy. It is recommended to us to encourage the court of Persia to build a fleet on the Caspian sea, to secure the Afghans and Seiks, to occupy the navigation of the Indus and Punjab rivers, to station troops at the towns of Attock and Multan, and to make lines of communication from one station to another. In the last place, however, as well as in the first, we are exhorted to conciliate the Hindoos; by the preservation of whose confidence, together with the possession of Egypt, and the command of the Indian seas and the banks of the Indus, it is conjectured that British India may be secured from invasion.

Moy.

Art. 37. *Vindication of the Hindoos from the Aspersions of the Rev. Claudius Buchanan*, M.A.; with a Refutation of the Arguments exhibited in his Memoir on the Expediency of an Ecclesiastical Establishment for British India, and the ultimate Civilization of the Natives, by their Conversion to Christianity. Also remarks on an Address from the Missionaries in Bengal to the Natives of India, condemning their Errors, and inviting them to become Christians. The whole tending to evince the Excellence of the Moral System of the Hindoos, and the Danger of interfering with their Customs and Religion. By a Bengal Officer. 8vo. pp. 171. 5s. sewed. Rodwell. 1808.

Disclaiming eloquence, but with an energetic pen, this officer pleads the cause of the Hindoos, and reprobates in pointed language the extreme impolicy of rousing the prejudices of our Asiatic subjects against us in this hour of peril. His *Vindication* was first excited by the perusal of a manuscript professing to be "A Translation of an Address to the Inhabitants of India, from the Missionaries of Serempoor, in Bengal, inviting them to become Christians;" and

the

the author was induced to extend his remarks by a sight of Dr. Claudius Buchanan's "Memoir on the Expediency of an Ecclesiastical Establishment in British India." In both productions this officer considers the Hindoos to be vilified, and he enters on their defence with unexampled boldness. Under the heads of the conversion of the Hindoos, how far practicable?—the excellence of their religious and moral doctrines — their character — their civiliza ion — the danger and inutility of employing Hindoo converts to the natives of India—the expediency of an Asiatic religious establishment,—the danger of attempting the conversion of the natives, &c. he discusses the subject which has occasioned so much debate, with great knowlege and ability; and he pronounces the measure which Dr. C. Buchanan strongly urges, to be so manifestly 'impolitic, inexpedient, dangerous, and unwise, as scarcely to admit of any excuse short of the unhappy impulse of insanity *.' No Hindoo, he says, of any respectability, will ever yield to the remonstrances of the missionaries. He takes fire at the epithet "barbarians" applied to the Hindoos; and he cites doctrines of their sacred books, to prove the sublimity of their morality, and that they require little instruction from us: but here the warmth of his zeal will subject him to the charge of too great partiality to the moral system prevalent in the East. Abulfazel, the Mohammedan, is quoted in support of the character which is drawn of the Hindoos, as a people exhibiting great mildness and suavity of manners, and as a most happy race of beings when left to the undisturbed performance of the rites of their religion. Instead of an ecclesiastical establishment in India, which he is sure would be of no utility, this Bengal officer advises us to endeavour, through the medium of their own pundits or priests, to correct the reprehensible customs which prevail among the natives. While we admit that this is a hint not to be despised, we cannot approve of a subsequent sentiment, which aims at the subversion not only of establishments, but even of all public worship.

Dr. B 's statements respecting the want of truth and honesty among the Hindoos are flatly contradicted, on the ground of an experience of twenty-seven years In opposition also to his account of the insubser iency of their mythology to morality, it is here asserted to be 'the most complete and ample system of moral allegory that the world has ever produced;' and to produce such a practical effect on the conduct of the people, that, says this officer, 'whenever the christian religion does as much for the lower orders of society, in Europe, as that of Brahma appears to have done for the Hindoos, I shall cheerfully vote for its establishment in Hindostan.'

Other assertions advanced in the memoir of the clergyman are "stamped as false" by the officer; who is so energetic in defence of the Hindoos, and in condemning the scheme of religious interference, as occasionally to trespass on civility to Dr. Buchanan. Justice, however, requires us to add that his pages are full of that information which applies immediately to the subject in debate, and that the inference which he deduces must be admitted by all prudent men. **Mo-y.**

* In other places he is even more severe. See pp. 78. 145.

Mis-

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 38. *A Letter to the Governors, Legislatures, and Proprietors of Plantations in the British West India Islands.* By the Righ Rev. Beilby Porteus, D.D. Bishop of London. 8vo. pp 48. 2s. Cadell and Davies. 1808.

A laudable anxiety and concern for the welfare of the neglected sons of Africa is here displayed, which is worthy of the pious and highly reverend pastor by whom they are expressed. May his earnest exhortations have all the weight to which they are intrinsically intitled, and which they derive from the character and sacred office of him from whom they proceed!

Bp. Porteus avows himself warmly attached to the proposition, and convinced of its practicability, for converting the Hindoos in the East, and the Negroes of the West Indies: but it is to the latter object alone that the present pamphlet is dedicated. He exhorts the persons to whom it is addressed, to concur in *the establishment of parochial schools in every parish of the West India islands*, on the plan established by Dr. Bell at Madras; and among other means of supporting them, he suggests the formation of a subscription in this country; which he offers to open in his diocese by his own contribution of 500l., with a promise of doubling that liberal grant whenever occasion may require it.

G.2.

Some of the expressions of the R. R author have, we think, very improperly and wantonly been made the subject of cavil. He informs us that he has been censured because he states a well known fact, namely, that "christian negroes fetch a higher price than those who remain heathens." It is obvious, from the connection, that the worthy prelate does not mention this circumstance with the view of sanctioning a traffic in human beings, but to shew the general higher value which religion gives to those human beings.—We are as much advocates as the venerable Bishop, for the due observance of the christian sabbath: but the genius of christianity, and the authority of its founder, seem to us to militate against the restraints and gloom in regard to it which judaism and puritanism required, and which are at least *countenanced* in this tract. The sacrifice also, which the Bp. of London makes to a stupid clamour, when he gives up the plan of teaching the negroes to write, is unworthy of him; and we are persuaded that it cannot, nor does he ever intimate that it does, accord with his own benevolent and liberal sentiments.

Jo.

CORRESPONDENCE.

'*To the* EDITOR *of the* MONTHLY REVIEW.

'SIR, Norham, Sept. 17, 1808.

'REFERRING to your last Number, page 428, you do not appear to have known, that the ballad of the Battle of Flodden was ever before printed; I beg leave, therefore, to acquaint you, that the poem was published several years since, with notes, by the late Rev. Robert Lamb,

Lamb, vicar of Norham, to whom the manuscript was communicated, by the late John Askew, of Palinsburn, Esq. The notes, as coming from the pen of an able scholar, are not less curious and entertaining than the poem itself. Norham and Palinsburn House are only a few miles distant from each other, and the respective gentlemen were in the habits of intimacy.

'I am, Sir,

'Your very obedient Servant,

'A. I.'

Our Woburn Correspondent P. has not only misquoted Archimedes' celebrated declaration respecting the powers of the lever, but has misapprehended both the Barrister and us on the subject of self-dubbed Evangelical Preachers. If the 39 articles are allowed to be the pillars and foundations of truth, these preachers will make out a strong case: but from the Scriptures *accurately translated,* (we discard the common version as a court of appeal in controversy,) it is no easy matter for them to deduce their dogmas. – On the subject of Faith, P. does not seem to distinguish between mathematical conviction and *belief* as a religious principle; he ought, however, to consider that the Scriptures speak of "believing with the heart," and of "an evil heart of unbelief," by the use of which expressions it is clear that they distinguish between a naked assent and a *cordial conviction.* It is the latter, – consisting in that full persuasion of religious truth, which lays hold on the heart and inclines it to obedience,—that we mean by *Faith*; and this as a principle must be the basis and origin of active virtue, or of a life of religion conformably to the precepts of the Gospel. If our Correspondent considers the matter in this point of view, he will not regard us as so erroneous as he now supposes us to be.

P.'s subsequent letter does not appear to require specific notice. **Mo.y.**

We cannot advert to the subject of J. G.'s note in this number, but shall endeavour to attend to it in our next Review.

In this busy month, we have not had leisure to peruse the communication of L. S.: but we can discern, with a glance of the eye, that it is very materially too extensive for the purpose to which it is destined, considering the degree of importance possessed by the object of it.

Miles will find an account of Baron de Fage Vaumale's work on Fortification, in our *Appendix*, which is published with this Review.

Mr. Wright's letter has been forwarded to the gentleman whom it more immediately concerns, and who has not yet returned it to the Editor.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. LVI of the M. R. is published with this number, and consists of *Foreign Literature*, &c. as usual.

Errors, pp. 33/75/77. 104.